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ABSTRACT

The intent of this symposium report is to share information with educators and other professionals who work with American Indian exceptional children. In this monograph, most symposium presentations, and in some cases the ensuring discussion, are summarized. Introductory remarks are provided by Gil Pena of the All-Indian Pueblo Council, and this is followed by an opening address by Beverly Valley. Titles and authors of the other presentations are: "Parent Involvement Considerations" (Roger Kroth); "American Indian Parents of Handicapped Children" (Marilyn Johnson); "The Influence of Locus of Control and Culture on Learning Styles of Language Minority Students" (Alba Ortiz); "Language and Curriculum Development for American Indian Handicapped Children" (Jacqueline Walker); "Bilingual Special Education Teacher Training for American Indians" (Leonard Baca); "American Indian Personnel Preparation in Special Education" (Anna Gajar); and "Federal Policy and the Education of American Indian Exceptional Children and Youth: Current Status and Future Directions" (Bruce Ramirez). References accompany each paper. An appendix offers statistical data on: (1) the number of American Indian children with disabilities by handicapping condition, state, and educational environment; and (2) the number of special education teachers and related personnel. (JDD)

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American Indian Exceptional Children and Youth

Edited by

Marilyn J. Johnson and Bruce A. Ramirez

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An ERIC Exceptional Child Education Report

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PREFACE

Educators have long been challenged to understand and consider the special characteristics and circumstances of distinct cultural groups in American society in order to provide culturally diverse children with more appropriate educational services. In particular, professionals working with American Indian and Alaskan Native exceptional children and their families experience difficulties staying abreast of the latest materials, methods, research, and policy related to the education of American Indian handicapped and gifted and talented students. Separative influences such as the multitude of Indian tribes dispersed throughout the United States and Canada, inter- and intra-governmental relationships, varying types of educational programs, and distance all combine to limit the opportunities for special educators to share ideas, needs, and concerns.

As part of its commitment to culturally diverse exceptional children, The Council for Exceptional Children sponsored a Symposium on Exceptional American Indian Children and Youth in Albuquerque, New Mexico, February 6-8, 1985. Other organizations and groups supporting and cooperating in the planning and conduct of the Symposium included The All-Indian Pueblo Council and the Arizona State University Center for Indian Education.

Symposium presenters addressed issues related to parents and families, assessment practices, cognitive styles, language development, gifted and talented children, personnel preparation, and policy. The Symposium presentations (and in some cases, the ensuing discussion), with the exception of the presentations on assessment and the gifted, are summarized in this monograph. The paper on public policy has been included in its entirety because of its relevance to many of the presentations. The presentations by Beverly Valley, Roger Kroth, and Marilyn Johnson emphasize the need for parent and family involvement and how this can be accomplished. Alba Ortiz contrasts the cognitive styles of bilingual children and relates these to the classroom. Jacqueline Walker's contribution underscores the important role language (i.e., native and English) plays in the learning process and discusses its implications for special education. Leonard Baca and Anna Gajar provide a comprehensive discussion of programs preparing special education professionals to work with American Indian handicapped children. The paper by Bruce Ramirez contains current data on the number of American Indian exceptional children presently being served, reviews pertinent federal policy, and identifies areas requiring further attention.

The intent of this monograph is to share information with educators and other professionals who work with American Indian exceptional children. It is our hope that this work will stimulate further discussion and sharing of information to improve and expand appropriate services to American Indian handicapped and gifted and talented children and youth.

Marilyn J. Johnson
Bruce A. Ramirez

INTRODUCTORY REMARKS

Gil Pena
Chairperson, The All-Indian Pueblo Council

On behalf of The All-Indian Pueblo Council (AIPC), we are very happy to be a co-sponsor of this important meeting. The most precious and greatest commodity we have is our children, whether they are healthy or handicapped. The large number of people registered for the Symposium indicates tremendous interest and dedication to seeing that positive steps are taken to address their needs.

Over the years, not enough has been done to assist Indians who have a disability or who are exceptional in other ways. Through the AIPC, we have initiated some programs to assist individuals who are disabled in our local communities. For example, the Indian Children's Program provides many different services to Indian handicapped children and youth. The Fetal Alcohol Syndrome Program seeks to deter drinking among mothers during their pregnancies, and the Speech and Hearing Program offers diagnostic services. Because of our traditional way of life, it is important that we begin to train our own people in these as well as other areas. In this way, we can have the greatest impact in our Indian communities. Working together we can provide the best educational services possible for our young people.

On behalf of all the 19 Pueblos, we welcome you to "Pueblo Country" and wish you well as you consider how to bring about a brighter future for Indian children everywhere.

OPENING ADDRESS

Beverly J. Valley

As a parent of a special-needs child and a member of the school board for our local elementary school, I am pleased to be a part of this Symposium. It is my hope that this meeting will have an impact on the quality of education provided Indian children, including my son.

My experience on several boards and advisory committees has taught me that it takes all of us working together to accomplish something meaningful for our children. Teachers came to my home around the clock to teach my son to say "Oh," which means to go to the restroom. Others taught me that I had to reinforce things being taught at school, at home. In my community, a small group of parents formed the Acoma Special Children's Group. Even though we are small in number, the commitment of these families has proved that we can make a difference.

There are many parents who do not know some of the things that they could be doing to help their children. Parents need your help because your knowledge can help them make better educational decisions. I had to be taught about cerebral palsy and the educational rights of my special-needs child. Many Indian parents are intimidated by assessments and are not familiar with the curriculum. At the same time, parents can provide valuable information to administrators, teachers, and paraprofessionals on how to work with their children. For example, teachers at my son's school were once too afraid to move my child, because they considered him too fragile.

Parents need to be involved in the entire school program. Before the beginning of this school year, I met with the principal and regular and special education teachers, and we all agreed to work together to get my son to raise his head. Now, wherever my son goes at school, he gets reminded to "raise his head." It takes a total effort from everybody.

As a school board member, I always ask prospective teachers what kind of experience they have had in special education or with special needs children. Why? Because, in one way or another, all teachers will have to teach that child.

There seems also to be a need for better testing. For example, when my son was tested, he was expected to identify pictures of a carpenter; however, carpenters on the reservation do not dress like those in the pictures. As long as you have a hammer, you are a carpenter. The same can be said of the man in a business suit. Nobody on the reservation wears a business suit, so he is not going to be able to recognize a businessman. Similar things occur in regular education. My daughter was asked to identify an industrial center and a taxi, neither of which exists on the Pueblo of Acoma.

We have all heard that Indian parents are not outspoken. I had to learn how to speak up on behalf of my child. There are many Indian parents who may not be as verbal as myself, but they are learning, and with the help and support of educators and other parents, they will continue to grow more confident. We have come a long way, but the Indian children from Isleta, Jemez, Zia, San Felipe, Santo Domingo, and the other Pueblos have many unmet needs. The same can be said for the Indian children from North Dakota, South Dakota, Kansas, North Carolina, Minnesota, and so forth. The settings may be different, but there are many common concerns and needs.

Parents are depending on all of you at this meeting because of your involvement in Indian education. For all that you have done or will be doing, all I can say is thank you. Let us regain that initiative to go out and do more and not to give up. In closing, I want to introduce my son, Eddie Boy, who is only one of all the special children that you serve. I know it is frustrating at times, but special needs children and their families need you to participate and be there to offer your assistance.

PARENT INVOLVEMENT CONSIDERATIONS

Roger Kroth

I am so pleased with what I see taking place in the area of parent involvement throughout the country. We are now seeing conferences for parents that are extremely well attended and parents making presentations to professionals and other parents. This morning I want to share some things with you that I have found in my work with parents. Some of these things may seem like common sense, but are often overlooked as we strive to serve children.

Parents want to be involved. Often times people tell me that they cannot get parent involvement. You can get parent involvement. Parents have needs and are interested in helping their children. It is our responsibility to provide them with meaningful opportunities for involvement.

There are many reasons why parents cannot be involved, but an awful lot depends on how we portray parent involvement and what we are trying to accomplish with their children. When we began the Parent Involvement Center, we had a philosophy that parents had to be recognized. This is something I remind myself of every day.

Parents are not a homogeneous group. Unfortunately, we tend to treat them as if they are all alike. Some are rich, some are poor, some are real poor. Some can read at a college level, while some cannot read or write at all. They do not all come from the same cultural or ethnic background, yet schools treat them as if there is one prototype. I recently analyzed a form sent home by the schools and was dismayed to learn that it was written at a college level.

Time is a precious commodity for parents. Time is one reason why parents are not as involved as much as we would hope and they often would like. Parents work all day and may have other children. These as well as other responsibilities can severely restrict their time. In 1940, 8.6% of the mothers of children under age 18 worked; last year, well over 60% were employed outside the home.

Burnout. There is a real possibility that when we find a parent willing to become involved, we grab hold of them and overwork them. Many of these parents eventually get burned out, and we never see them again.

In closing, parents have a wealth of knowledge that can be invaluable in the learning process, and they can make significant contributions, if given the chance.

AMERICAN INDIAN PARENTS OF HANDICAPPED CHILDREN

Marilyn J. Johnson

The level and appropriateness of services provided to handicapped American Indian children depends to a great extent on the commitment and interest of teachers and administrators. Parents of handicapped children must also be committed to their child's education and must be prepared to advocate for their child. The involvement of parents, however, will be influenced by the amount of training and information they receive and acquire. Schools typically have been the avenue through which this training and information has been made available to American Indian parents.

At best, parent training for American Indians has been sporadic and frequently has stemmed from some type of governmental mandate. For example, during the early years of P.L. 94-142, training was provided to parents particularly on aspects of due process and procedural safeguards. For the most part, these early efforts have not continued or been expanded. In short, the sense of urgency has faded, and the training and involvement of American Indian parents seems to have been accorded less importance.

American Indian parents with handicapped children have many of the same needs as those who are non-Indian; however, their needs and concerns also will be influenced by cultural, familial, and environmental factors. Thus, American Indian parents of handicapped children represent a group with training and information needs that necessitate cultural and linguistic sensitivity.

Popular Misconceptions

In the development of training for American Indian parents, trainers need to be aware of and prepared to address the following misconceptions:

It is usually very difficult to obtain input from American Indian parents regarding their child or their child's education. Many educators typically think of parent input or involvement as attendance at a meeting for the purpose of sharing information, followed by an opportunity for questions. In most instances, parents' knowledge about special education may be very rudimentary, which itself can restrain questions or responses from American Indian parents.

For some Indian parents, the request for information is a novel situation. In addition, the presentation of concerns to teachers or administrators, especially in a group setting, may constitute an intimidating situation. A parent who is unfamiliar with the vocabulary specific to special education may consider the risk of embarrassment too great. Likewise, the number of professionals in attendance (special education and/or regular education teacher, speech therapist, physical therapist, special education coordinator, etc.) can override attempts to convey concerns.

A third factor to keep in mind concerning communication with American Indian parents relates to the opportunity parents have to convey concerns or provide information. A teacher, for example, may encourage parents to talk about their child, yet not provide ample opportunity or time for parents to respond without being discourteous by interrupting. In some Indian tribes, unwritten rules for communication require an individual to wait for the speaker to finish talking before saying anything. Likewise, if a parent is formulating a response and has not expressed his or her reply quickly enough, this delay is sometimes interpreted as a lack of interest in responding.

Thus, courtesy, sincerity, and ample opportunity and time to convey concerns are prevailing aspects which can promote communication with and participation from American Indian parents.

American Indian parents do not seem to show an interest in activities meant to help their child. It is essential that a parent trainer have some knowledge and/or experience working with American Indian parents. Recognition of the differing values and beliefs of American Indians is essential in order to ensure that the training and parent involvement activities are consistent with tribal beliefs and values. It is not the purpose of parent training, as some have expressed, to change the values of parents to more readily approximate those of the majority society.

In many tribes, interactions between members are based on strong, close familial and clan relationships, and the needs of the family or clan will likely comprise a high priority. Therefore, if the needs of the family or clan responsibilities conflict with parent involvement activities, this should not be automatically construed as lack of concern for a child, but rather a strong sense of commitment to the family or clan. Any attempt to develop and deliver training for American Indian parents, therefore, should take these traits into consideration.

Topics of little or no relevance to American Indian parents can quickly dampen parent interest. Trainers must recognize that some resources may not be readily available or not exist in many rural or reservation settings. For example, a trainer may give examples of how parents can work with children at home; however, toys or other items used in the demonstrations may not be available or affordable. Or it may be suggested that the child be provided with an opportunity to play with water. However, if water has to be hauled to the home, this idea will not be perceived as practical by parents.

High levels of interest by Native American parents can be generated when cultural, linguistic, and other factors are incorporated into the development of the training materials and their presentation. Although there are other considerations parent trainers should address when working with American Indian parents, these two misconceptions need to be taken into consideration in order to develop more meaningful partnerships with parents of American Indian handicapped children and youth.

GROUP DISCUSSION ON PARENT AND FAMILY INVOLVEMENT

How school personnel relate to parents can have direct and indirect effect on the children; therefore, it is important that school personnel are warm and accepting. In most instances, schools need to initiate contact with Indian parents in a manner consistent with local customs. For example, a written notice or invitation could go unnoticed or misinterpreted, while a home visit by a sensitive individual fluent in the language of the parents could prove more beneficial. There is also a need to build rapport with parents throughout the year. This may involve attendance at local community functions and activities, acknowledging parents at other than school activities, and sending home "good" notes about their children's school work, for example, "Johnny read well today." Other ways of encouraging Indian parent involvement with the local school include: (1) sponsoring social activities; (2) offering classes, for example, on child nutrition; (3) providing transportation to meetings and arranging for child care services during the meeting; and (4) inviting parents to be guest speakers.

To guarantee a clear understanding of their rights and the responsibilities of the schools, parents must be provided clear and concise information on existing legal requirements. If the information is provided in written form, it should be in a vocabulary understandable to the average parent in that particular community, for example, "local Indian English" rather than standard English. Wherever needed, the school should provide an interpreter who is familar with the translation of special education concepts into the parent's native language. Educators also need to be sensitive to and aware of other family, community, and tribal responsibilities that may be a priority, for example, providing the next meal for the family may be more important than getting the handicapped child to a scheduled medical appointment.

THE INFLUENCE OF LOCUS OF CONTROL AND CULTURE ON LEARNING STYLES OF LANGUAGE MINORITY STUDENTS

Alba A. Ortiz

Cognitive styles reflect how people perceive their environment, how they receive and interpret information, and how they categorize or organize it. Of importance to teachers is that cognitive styles also reflect students' individual preferences as to how they are instructed, and thus how they learn. In the case of language minority students, educators must be made aware that students exhibit diverse cognitive and learning styles, styles which are a product of their reference or social group and their prior experiences. When these students have academic problems, it is important to consider whether they are experiencing difficulty because they do not conform to teachers' norms or expectations for behavior.

Locus of Control

There are students who continuously meet with academic failure because of incompatibilities between the way they learn and the way teachers teach. Various terms have been used to describe the behaviors of these students, including internal versus external locus of control (Vasquez, 1975), learned helplessness (Henderson, 1980), and cultural deprivation (Feuerstein, 1980). These authors suggest that for a variety of reasons, including socioeconomic level or minority status, certain students exhibit behaviors which predispose them to failure in school.

The concept of locus of control, originally formulated by Rotter (1966), concerns a person's perception of the relationship between actions and outcomes, or cause and effect. "Internals" believe they are in control of their lives and that work and effort result in reward. "Externals" think that outcomes are determined by luck, chance, fate, or powerful others who control their destinies. For students with external orientations, the force controlling their destinies--that powerful other--is the classroom teacher (Ortiz & Yates, 1984a).

Vasquez (1975) has described the effect of locus of control upon learning:

Self-reliance. In classes where students are expected to work independently, externals are at a disadvantage, while internals are rewarded for their diligence and their ability to complete assignments with little teacher supervision. Externals do not have the same level of self-confidence as internals, and thus prefer to work in groups (the "two heads are better than one" phenomenon) or request frequent teacher direction and feedback. These children constantly seek affirmation from the teacher that they are doing assignments correctly or instruction about what to do next.

Level of aspiration. Internals are better able to plan and implement strategies that yield desired outcomes, thus enhancing the possibility of academic success. On the other hand, externals often fail to see the relationship between actions and outcomes and have a tendency to ignore plans and strategies. Externals are more likely to wait passively for directions or instructions from the teacher instead of beginning activities independently. When queried about their lack of productivity, they respond that they do not know what to do; in reality, the problem is that they do not know how to determine the components of the task or how to sequence their behavior to accomplish the task. If left on their own, externals rarely complete assignments. Consequently, teachers have few clues as to what these students have learned.

Expectations of success. Internals attribute success to their own behavior, ability, and effort, and they are willing to assume responsibility for their failures. When failure is determined to be the result of lack of effort, internals engage in introspection and resolve to change their behavior or level of effort to ensure success in the future. Externals, however, do not analyze situations to determine the relationship between their behaviors and outcomes, and hence lose the opportunity to learn from experience. Consequently, they have little ability to anticipate how things will turn out, or to generalize from one task to another similar task.

Moreover, the external is unlikely to profit from feedback unless it is direct or concrete. For example, adhering to the principle that one should ignore negative behavior and focus on behavior that is positive, the teacher may say, "Mary, I like the way you are sitting," when he or she really means, "Johnny, I want you to follow Mary's example and to sit quietly at your desk." Johnny, who has an external orientation, rather than interpreting that the teacher would like him to behave like Mary, may conclude instead that Mary is the "teacher's pet." The teacher's indirect feedback offers Johnny no clue as to what behavior is expected of him. A more effective approach would be for the teacher to communicate overtly the desired behavior. Without such feedback, the external remains in the dark as to the reasons for success, failure, or sanctions.

Intensity of work. The self-concept of internals is enhanced by success and by their analytical ability to determine the consequences of failure. They are more willing to work intensely for reinforcements. On the other hand, externals tend to be judged as conformist and willing to accept imposed structures, regardless of whether such structures produce reward or punishment. They perceive that rewards are controlled by the teacher (e.g., teachers give grades; externals don't earn them) and frequently are described as lacking motivation because they do not strive to increase the likelihood for positive reinforcement. The reality is that externals simply have a different way of perceiving and interpreting their environment. However, because educators do not understand this, the "lack" of motivation and intensity of effort on the part of the externally directed student is likely to produce frustration and irritation for the teacher who values internal orientations.

Performance under skill conditions. Internals enjoy challenge and working under conditions that require display of skill. For example, under testing conditions, the internal is likely to scan test items to determine which ones he or she knows, analyze differences in terms of the difficulty of the items, and begin with easier items, being careful to allocate time so that all items can be completed. The external, failing to recognize that there are differences among the test questions, is likely to begin with the first item and work steadily until time is exhausted. The child may fixate on a particularly difficult item and not have enough time to complete the others, even though they may be simpler or involve information that the student knows. Because of poor test-taking skills, the externals' performance is generally low and scores provide little insight into their actual knowledge or skills.

The effects of an external locus of control upon the achievements of minority children can be devastating. When a major goal of schooling is to produce independent thinkers and learners, individuals who clearly deviate from or have difficulty moving toward such a goal will be judged deficient or abnormal. Unfortunately, many educators fail to recognize that these difficulties, rather than reflecting deviance, are normal characteristics of students from lower socioeconomic levels or minority groups whose cognitive and learning styles differ from students reared in middle class environments who are more likely to meet teachers' expectations for classroom behavior.

Accommodating Learning Style Differences

Should teachers attempt to change students' orientation from external to internal? No. Teachers should respect students' orientations and learning style preferences, as these are a product of family and community socialization practices. The teacher's responsibility in responding to differences in cognitive or learning styles is twofold. First, teachers must accommodate both internal and external learning styles so that all students can develop a sense of security and have the opportunity to experience success in the classroom. Second, teachers should teach alternative styles. Too often, educators assume that students will demonstrate desired behaviors simply because they are expected to do so. If students are to utilize a style or behavior that is not within their repertoire, they must first learn it. In order for them to learn the behavior or skill, it must be taught.

Weil and Joyce (1976) have described various teaching models which differ in approaches toward organizing and carrying out learning experiences. For example, social models of teaching emphasize the relationship of the individual to society or to other persons. Priority is given to group interaction and to improving the individual's ability to relate to others. This model fosters cooperative learning. Personal models are oriented toward the individual, with an emphasis on student responsibility for learning. The teacher uses strategies such as individual contracts which require that the student direct his or her own efforts toward accomplishing instructional goals. Behaviorist models utilize systems for sequencing learning tasks and shaping behavior by manipulating

reinforcement. The emphasis is on teaching students cause and effect relationships, thus helping them to assume responsibility for the consequences of their behaviors.

Internals respond well to personal models of teaching because they can direct much of their own learning. On the other hand, externals prefer social models because they emphasize peer interaction and cooperative learning tasks. If an external child is thrust into a personal model without preparation, failure is almost certain. By the same token, an internal child is likely to experience difficulty in a classroom with a social orientation.

If external students are to function independently, they must first learn how to consider alternatives, anticipate outcomes, make decisions, control their own behaviors, and assume responsibility for the outcomes. To accomplish this end, behaviorist models can be used to teach students the relationship between their behaviors and the consequences of those behaviors. Until these relationships are established, however, the teacher must steer away from tasks which require internal orientation and instead teach using social models which capitalize on the child's strengths. Once the student has learned to assume responsibility for his or her learning, that student can be successfully integrated into personal models of teaching. By the same token, when a teacher uses social models of teaching, the internal student who prefers working alone is at a disadvantage. Teachers must help these students to develop good interpersonal skills and to learn how to be an effective member of a group so that they can operate successfully in a model which emphasizes human interaction.

Teaching alternative styles helps students become adaptive individuals who can respond to situations requiring either internal or external motivation. Of note is that this can be accomplished without devaluing the students' preferred style.

Cultural Influences on Learning Styles

Understanding the characteristics of the child's reference group, including language, customs, traditions, religion, family, attitudes, and so forth, is also critical to accommodating learning style differences (Ortiz & Yates, 1984b). The more information one has about the student's cultural group, the easier it will be to develop accurate interpretations of individual behavior. Unfortunately, much of the literature which describes minority individuals reinforces existing stereotypes. When teachers follow these stereotypes in selecting instructional strategies, incompatibilities between teaching and learning styles result.

There is no one set of characteristics that can be ascribed to all members of any ethnic group. Instead, culture exists on a continuum, with individuals demonstrating traits which range from those traditionally attributed to the ethnic group to those that are descriptive of a minority individual who has been totally assimilated into the majority culture (Carter & Segura, 1979). A critical analysis of the characteristics of the home and community based on an understanding of this "continuum of culture," will provide a sound foundation for the development of curricula

which reflect diversity within ethnic groups and thus reduce stereotyping. Moreover, the continuum of culture approach can help teachers understand the sociocultural influences of the home and community that produce unique cognitive styles (Ortiz & Yates, 1984b). For example, Ramirez and Castaneda (1974) use the concepts of field independence and field sensitivity to describe the cognitive styles of children from traditional, dualistic, and atraditional cultures. Individuals who are field independent are deductive thinkers and analytical and reflective problem solvers.

Such children can work alone effectively with little direction. Field sensitive children, on the other hand, use relational rather than analytical strategies in problem solving (Almanza & Mosley, 1980). Such children may need constant supervision, direction, and feedback in order to achieve. Whether a student is field independent or field sensitive depends upon cultural, socioeconomic, and other background characteristics. Teachers must carefully observe and analyze student behaviors to characterize learning styles rather than stereotyping learning styles on the basis of ethnicity or socioeconomic status.

Ramirez and Castaneda provide a helpful framework for analysis of cultural characteristics using four value clusters: (1) identification with family, community, and ethnic group; (2) interpersonal relationships; (3) status and rule definition in the family and community, and (4) religious ideology. While they use this framework to describe Mexican-American cultures, many of the values and orientations they describe are equally applicable to other ethnic groups, including American Indians. Again, caution against stereotyping is urged. The descriptions that follow are intended only to suggest the range of cultural characteristics that occur within the same ethnic group.

Traditional cultures. Children from traditional communities are likely to be field sensitive. The family is the most critical unit in these communities, and children are taught that they are representatives of the family first and individuals second. All family members, including the extended family, participate in child rearing, monitor the behavior of children, and provide feedback to parents as to whether they have been successful in teaching their children correct social mores. Given this, it is not difficult to understand why the family is the most important reference point in decision making. Children understand that there are people all around them who will be affected by their decisions and their behavior and therefore will share in the blame or credit for their actions. There is an emphasis, then, on adherence to the rules of the family, community, and ethnic group, with self-control and respect for convention as the strong or dominant values. The child from a traditional community has a strong ethnic identity in that these communities are, for the most part, segregated (e.g., reservation, barrio, etc.), with the majority of the residents being members of the same ethnic group. Thus, there are continuous opportunities for students to learn the customs, traditions, and language of the cultural group.

Dualistic cultures. In the dualistic community, the customs of the ethnic group are modified because of interactions with members of the majority culture, but a distinctive set of values continues to be nurtured by the family and the community. For example, while minority children may learn the native language of their parents, they are also likely to learn English from their Anglo peers who reside in the community. The child reflects the influence of the interacting cultures. On the other hand, the spirit of mutual help and cooperation for the good of the family may begin to wane and the individual may begin to incorporate values of independence and competitiveness. The family is still a critical reference, especially in early childhood, but the influence of the extended family is diminished because kin have dispersed into other communities. Values are no longer exclusively those of the traditional culture, but become more reflective of the broader community. The individual becomes dualistic, that is, able to conform to the norms and expectations of the family, as well as to adapt to norms and expectations of society at large. Children from dualistic communities may use both styles, but are more field independent than field sensitive.

Atraditional cultures. In the atraditional community, ethnic group members are in the minority, and thus offspring reflect the culture of the white, middle class. Because the culture is not reflected in the community, the individual may not have a strong ethnic identity or may reject that identity. Parents who want their children to know about the traditional culture and heritage have to provide specific opportunities for their children to learn such traditions. This is particularly true for language; unless parents make a conscious effort to teach the native language, their children are likely to be monolingual English speakers. Children from atraditional communities are most likely to be field independent (Ramirez & Castaneda, 1974).

As can be seen by the preceding descriptions, what is culturally relevant, and thus what is relevant in terms of cognitive or learning styles, is dependent upon the interaction of the four value clusters. To enhance the chances of success, teaching styles should be consistent with cognitive style. However, opportunities to learn alternative problem solving strategies should also be provided. That is, children who are field sensitive should be taught to adapt to situations requiring field independence. For example, the child who prefers group interaction, should at times be required to think and act alone. By the same token, the child who has poor interpersonal skills should be taught how to be an effective group member. Children who are taught both field independent and field sensitive behaviors learn to choose and use the appropriate behavior for a particular situation.

What is culturally appropriate is dependent upon where the child falls on the continuum of culture (i.e., whether the child is traditional, dualistic, or atraditional). As with locus of control, teachers must accept the students' cultures but also should help them understand and interact effectively with members of other cultural groups. For example, the dualistic individual understands the values and behaviors of the majority culture and can interact effectively with that culture group.

This individual, however, is equally comfortable with the values and orientations reflected by his or her family and community. Most importantly, dualistic individuals are able to select the behaviors appropriate to a given situation or group. This is the essence of cultural pluralism.

Summary

Students should not be made to feel that their cultural and/or learning styles are inappropriate or invalid. Rather, teachers should communicate that different styles and behaviors are accepted and, more importantly, valued. This can be accomplished easily by incorporating students' preferences into the teaching process. When teachers adhere to only one model or teaching strategy, failure can be predicted for certain students. Unfortunately, because language minority students are the most likely to exhibit behaviors contrary to those expected by traditional school systems, they are the ones most likely to fail. It seems unrealistic to place the burden of change on the young child. Instead, the major responsibility for adaptation should be given to education professionals.

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LANGUAGE AND CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT FOR AMERICAN INDIAN HANDICAPPED CHILDREN

Jacqueline L. Walker

In discussing the language development of American Indian children and youth and how it effects educational decisions we make on behalf of children, the following areas will be addressed:

1. General language development considerations with respect to culturally and linguistically different children.

2. Curriculum development.

3. Recommendations for making sound educational decisions for serving American Indian students.

These topics will be discussed from a perspective based on the author's experience with preschool-age children and students in grades 7-12 in a variety of settings serving American Indian students.

Language Development

In striving to understand the relationships between heredity, environment, and intelligence, there is documentation that children from lower socio-economic backgrounds score lower on I.Q., achievement, and language measures. Language plays an integral part in a child's cognitive development. Moreover, a child's language skills or perceived lack of language skills will very likely have some impact on how well she or he does on achievement and intelligence measures (Diessner & Walker, 1985; McCullough et al., 1985).

During the early 1970s, increased attention was given to the relationship of language and society. The central theme of this information was that language functions are not simply a means for recording experiences, but serve as a way of defining experiences for individuals in a manner that a particular community, culture, or people deem appropriate. Basically, language serves as a socialization agent. Socialization and language development are tied together, and occur in that environment to which individuals are exposed (Blout, 1974).

We, as educators, take for granted that a sequence of language development will follow for everyone except the more severely handicapped or others with specific problems impairing the "normal" developmental sequence. Children frequently do just fine in preschool, kindergarten, and first grade. Many times we are not aware of a child's learning "problems" until the first or second grade, when the results of achievement measures

indicate something is wrong. We may react by trying to identify the source of the learning problem(s), for example, cognitive delay, language delay, mental retardation, learning disability. Many factors impinge upon a child's abilities and capabilities to achieve and do well, but we cannot view these as separate factors. We have to take a more complex view of each child's development. According to cross-cultural studies, it does not make any difference whether a child is from Samoa, Egypt, or the United States--language and culture develop in a similar fashion. Children progress from object identification to mother/child diads, and so on, and this process of learning language is essentially the same for all cultures (Field et al., 1981).

In terms of the language acquisition and development of American Indian children, we need to be reminded that this group of children is comprised of many distinct populations, each with its own distinct cultural and linguistic characteristics. While this diversity is central to Indian education, we cannot allow it to overwhelm us. Effective educators must concentrate on identifying all the variables that can contribute to our understanding of the child and use this information to make instructional, curriculum, and educational decisions. Fifteen years of working with preschoolers, specifically with preschool handicapped children and in Indian Head Start Programs, has strengthened my belief that language development is the most important area on which we can concentrate in the early years, both in the child's native language and in English (Hansen, 1984). Among American Indians, language development can be hampered by dialectical characteristics which may cause some word forms used in school to be either vague or incomprehensible (Fletcher, 1983; Weeks, 1974).

It is our charge to provide students with a strong language base that will enable Indian students to be successful in the educational environments to which they are exposed. Indian children, once they go into an academic setting, will eventually be exposed to English and have to learn English as a survival skill. Some of these students may use nonstandard English (Indian English) which should be considered in educational programming, individualized education program (IEP) development, and general classroom instruction (Phillips, 1972; Lawrence, 1978).

English Language Difficulties

There are several areas identified as being "problem" areas for American Indians in using English (Fletcher, 1983). These areas include phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics. The phonological difficulties arise when differentiation of English sounds or sound combinations do not occur because they may exist or may differ from those in the native language, dialect, or form of English being used by the student. Articulation errors are often identified in American Indian students which may, in fact, not be considered errors in the students' native language or "Indian English." An example is final consonants, which are rare in Indian languages and often provide difficulty in learning English or may not always be evident in English-speaking students' speech.

Common problems in morphology that Native American students may experience include: (1) use of proper verb tense (example: "winned" for "win"); (2) use of prepositions (example: "get on the car" versus "get in the car"); and (3) use of determiners (such as "the," "a," "an") with singular, countable nouns.

Syntactical difficulties may also be evident, since the manner in which words are put together to form phrases, clauses, and sentences may be confusing to Indian students. This confusion stems from many Indian languages using the word order subject-object-verb while the primary English word order is subject-verb-object. The transition for Indian students can be very difficult.

Semantics is another area where Indian students encounter problems. In many instances, English vocabulary and grammar has to be memorized. It is a very confusing language, because many terms have similar meanings and slightly different spellings, all of which have to be learned and internalized.

Even though a student may come from a home where the parents, and even the grandparents, speak only English, the student may have difficulty learning all the rules and exceptions in the English language.

Enhancing the Educational Environment

The following are suggestions for enhancing the educational environment and service delivery for Indian students to enable them to be more successful in acquiring those language skills necessary to access the educational opportunities available.

Teach in the child's first language. Teaching in the first language will build conceptual skills and cognitive development. Reinforcement of the child's conceptual and cognitive abilities at an early age will provide a strong base from which formal, academic instruction will benefit.

Provide intense English language instruction. English instruction should start at an early age and be particularly intense in communities where students will be attending public or private schools where English is the primary language. Provide the initial practice and experiences that will alleviate those problem areas identified above. Students may initially require practice with such specific areas as minimally contrasting vowel pairs, final consonants and consonant clusters, verb tense forms, English determiners, singular pronouns, plural and singular noun forms, and prepositions. A strong instructional program that provides the concepts, practice, generalization, and reinforcement of language development will provide Indian students with the language-based survival skills needed in most educational settings.

Staffing. It is typically difficult to identify and retain competent professionals in settings that may be rural, isolated, or not a part of a larger system (non-public school). There are professionals who are skilled in their realm of expertise, but need additional information enabling them to apply their expertise in a context in which they are dealing with students who have different cultural and linguistic

experiences. Care should be given in providing orientations and training to personnel that will help them to provide a high level of service consistent with the unique needs of the students and the community. In addition, creative methods of attracting, or even acquiring, professional service providers may have to be considered. For example, the development of an intern program which provides a training site for non-Indian and Indian individuals training in a particular professional field may be helpful. Also, a staffing pattern can be stabilized by using indigenous paraprofessionals as auxiliary personnel.

IEP. Regardless of the child's disability, language should be an integral part of the student's IEP. In the development of an IEP, care should also be given to maintaining the integrity of the student's culture.

Testing. There are no unbiased instruments. It is the appropriate utilization of tests as well as the interpretation of the results that are critical. Professionals need to be able to weigh achievement, psychological and language data, teacher observations, and parental input, and fit the information together so that a meaningful student profile is developed and an appropriate educational program is designed and implemented.

Special education eligibility and services. The overrepresentation of American Indian students in special education is not as great as it used to be. However, there are large numbers of Indian students identified as language/speech impaired, learning disabled, and mildly mentally retarded who may, in fact, meet eligibility criteria, but for whom the "handicapping condition" may be situational or transitory. Educators are faced with decisions that are often related to language and language-related functions. For example, there are many older Indian students who have never been previously identified as eligible for special education services, but who, at 18 years of age or older, become involved in the special education referral and identification process. We have an 18-year-old male enrolled in 10th grade who is five grade levels behind as measured by achievement instruments. Psychological testing results indicate high performance, low verbal scores, and poor vocabulary and language skills. In determining eligibility for special education, we are faced with whether or not this is the most appropriate program for this student. We want what is best for the student, but realize that if we place this 18-year-old student in a special education program for the learning disabled, he will receive intensive instruction, but with a label that may not be fully accurate in terms of inherent or causative factors. In weighing this decision, appropriate questions that may have to be asked include: Was the student "taught" how to learn? Does his school history indicate factors, such as poor attendance, that influence his status? Is the student's home environment such that it is a factor in his status? Does the student want to be involved in special education?

The decisions related to providing services to handicapped students very much revolve around language. Do we use Navajo as the language of instruction, or do we use English? How much emphasis do we put on the development of the English language with handicapped students in the development of language skills? If English is the primary language, should we introduce Indian? This is becoming an issue with some tribes,

especially in cases where the Indian language is being reintroduced and emphasized. With handicapped students, should we place them in a bilingual program? What we hope for are highly qualified, sensitive educators who will work with the students within the context of their culture in an effective manner.

Curriculum Development

In terms of curriculum development, there has been substantial progress with respect to the education of American Indian students in regular education. It is not necessarily the curriculum material that makes the difference, but that the curriculum reflects a consistent philosophy. Does the philosophy of your school stress individual learning styles, meeting each individual child's needs? Are you organized to accomplish this? Do you seek staff who believe in this and have the necessary skills? If you are in a small system, will you develop a curriculum or adapt one? There is not always a need to reinvent the wheel. Based on the philosophy of your school, you can adapt effective and proven materials and technology.

Responsibility for identifying an appropriate curriculum, making appropriate adaptations, and implementing the program must be delegated. The implementation will be a challenge, since, in some school settings, there may be biases against certain forms of methodology or teaching strategies. In order to be effective, the needs of the student, school, and community should be identified and incorporated into a successful program. Expectations may differ with the environment, but students should be expected to learn those skills that will ensure success in a variety of settings, including school, home, and community. Other considerations include:

1. The need to identify student language abilities: first language, second language. It is also important to know any dialectical differences that may exist.

2. The need to identify the students' preferred learning style, including the environment that seems best suited for the student. Does the student learn better in a unstructured environment? Does he or she learn better in a group of peers?

3. The need to identify specific cultural factors specific to the students. Such things as views towards competitiveness may influence the instructional environment.

Recommendations

The following are specific recommendations for professionals involved in the education of American Indian handicapped students. The humanistic and professional qualities that are needed to provide an optimal level of services to these students should be encouraged and developed by those of us involved in programs.

1. Provide individualization, appropriate to the students, and their learning styles. Focus on the students' weaknesses and use their strengths, while incorporating relevant cultural factors.

2. In early language development, concentrate on developing concepts in the child's first primary language. Use the child's first language as a conceptual base before introducing a second language.

3. Identify, if you can, any local language characteristics that may have an impact upon instruction. Once a second language is introduced, be sure to differentiate between "social" and "academic" language.

4. Concentrate on individual learning styles to design intervention programs.

5. Adapt existing curriculum materials, if possible, making sure that there are standards that are met in accordance with and complementary to local community norms and expectations.

6. Incorporate research results pertaining to American Indians that apply and are appropriate to your setting.

7. Stay abreast of the field through membership in professional organizations.

8. Engage in functional applied research when deemed feasible and appropriate in terms of enhancing the educational program.

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GROUP DISCUSSION ON LANGUAGE AND CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

The primary concern of those participating in the discussion was the limited proficiency of many Indian children in both their native language and in English. It was agreed that instruction should be in the language with which the child is most comfortable, and that the child should be encouraged to verbalize as much as possible in that language. Development of the child's ideas, not correct use of grammar, should be the initial goal. Indian children must be motivated to communicate, and in the process they will develop self-confidence, at which point the second language can be slowly integrated into the classroom instruction.

It was also noted that English as a Second Language (ESL) and the language experience approach to teaching English have been effective. English instruction should be highly structured and incorporate all content areas. Language stimulation and experience should take place throughout the school day rather than in short, periodic increments. It is also sometimes helpful to relate language instruction to demonstrations, practice, etc.

Although there is a need for standardized tests for native language proficiency, problems related to the measurement of language skills include:

1. Many different dialects of native languages.

2. Native languages generally are not written.

3. Even when some materials have been published in a native language, such as Navajo, the majority of teachers are not versed in reading or writing the language.

4. Tests in native languages are not marketable.

Many have found questionnaires on the child's preferred language in different situations helpful in ascertaining language dominance. Administering tests in the native language was also seen as a problem due to the invalidation of the results. Moreover, literal translation of tests is an impossible task, since many native languages lack vocabulary for some of the concepts (e.g., nuclear power) appearing in the tests.

BILINGUAL SPECIAL EDUCATION TEACHER TRAINING FOR AMERICAN INDIANS*

Leonard Baca

Bilingual special education is relatively new and is still undergoing development. Beginning in 1973 and continuing through the late 1970s, there was a period of awareness concerning the existence of a group of children with unique learning needs. This was followed by a program development period. More recently, attempts are under way to refine and perfect the model in order to institutionalize bilingual special education at the service delivery and training levels.

Teacher Competencies

In terms of teacher training, the U.S. Department of Education has been very instrumental in encouraging the establishment of personnel preparation programs to recruit and train bilingual/bicultural professionals to work with culturally and linguistically diverse exceptional (CLDE) children. Development of these programs required the identification of needed competencies as well as the sharing of philosophies and methodologies. The literature (Baca, 1980; McLean, 1981; Prieto, Rueda, & Rodriquez, 1981; Pynn, 1981; Michael & Taylor, 1984) indicates the following competencies are essential for bilingual special education teachers:

- desire to work with CLDE students;
- ability to work effectively with parents of CLDE students;
- ability to develop appropriate IEP's;
- knowledge and sensitivity toward the culture and language of the students;
- ability to teach English as a Second Language (ESL);
- ability to conduct nonbiased assessment; and
- ability to utilize appropriate methods and materials.

*For a complete copy of this paper see Baca, L., & Miramontes, O., Journal of American Indian Education, May 1985, pp. 38-47.

Survey of Training Programs

Types of Training Programs

In 1982 we collected data from 30 bilingual and/or multicultural special education teacher training projects in the western region of the United States. Three general categories of projects were identified:

1. Strictly traditional special education programs with efforts directed toward recruitment of ethnic or bilingual students. For example, a program that trained regular learning disability teachers, but attempted to recruit minority and bilingual students.

2. Traditional special education programs with bilingual special education curricula infused into existing course work and program requirements. In this type of program, lectures, modules, and bibliographies on bilingual special education might be added to existing courses.

3. Specifically designed bilingual special education programs that featured bilingual special education course work and field experiences with bilingual special education curricula.

Analysis of the data generated from this evaluation indicated that 29 of the projects surveyed were strictly traditional special education programs that recruited minority students; 29% were traditional special education programs with bilingual special education infused into the existing curricula; and 42% were programs that offered specific courses on teaching CLDE students.

Training Program Concerns

The major concerns and recurring needs of the training programs as expressed by the project directors are summarized in Table 1. The most common concern was the institutionalization of their training program. Fifty-nine percent of the project directors expressed some concern that their program would cease to exist unless made a permanent program by their departments and institutions.

A second major concern was student recruitment and support. Forty-nine percent of the projects felt there were not enough minority students in their programs. Projects reported difficulty in recruiting minority students and in providing adequate academic support to retain them. Moreover, some projects felt a need to provide academic and general support to the few minorities that were already in the programs.

The support and cooperation of programs and agencies such as special education departments, state departments of education, local educational agencies, and community groups was also seen as an important need by project personnel. Twenty-four percent felt bilingual special education programs needed better planning and development. Another 24% felt there was a need to infuse bilingual special education curricula into existing courses.

Table 1. Concerns Generated from Project Interviews*

CONCERNS	PERCENT
Program institutionalization	59
Student recruitment and support (for example, tutoring)	49
Program support and cooperation with departments, programs and agencies (for example, state departments of education, school districts, and communities)	35
Program planning and development	24
Infusion of bilingual special education curricula into existing courses	24
Faculty and teacher inservice training (for example, models and content)	18
Research and development of reliable and valid diagnostic instruments in bilingual special education	18
Methods and curricula identification, development and dissemination	18
Basic research emphasis	12

*Many training projects had more than one concern.

Recommendations resulting from this study included the following:

1. Increase the support at the local, state, and federal levels.

2. Greater cooperation between colleges/universities and local school districts in the planning and conduct of systematic in-service training programs. Graduates of these programs are absorbed extremely quickly into the service delivery system; therefore, in-service training is an important vehicle in reaching greater numbers of existing personnel.

3. Increased support for leadership training at the doctoral level. This is very important, because it takes a great deal of time to create a new generation of knowledgeable and skilled people to conduct and further develop these programs.

4. Emphasis on parental involvement and training at all levels.

5. Curriculum should be highly interdisciplinary (for example, special education, bilingual education, psychology, anthropology, linguistics, psycholinguistics, foreign languages, and so forth).

6. Empirical validation of teacher competencies identified in the literature before designing future training programs.

7. Research conducted on student outcomes.

8. Development of training materials, textbooks, and bibliographies.

9. Special provisions for student recruitment and retention. Stipends, tuition, and book allowances, as well as other kinds of support, should be provided.

10. Bilingual special education and ESL methods courses should be specialized for particular populations.

11. Further study of special education, bilingual education, and bilingual special education endorsement and certification.

12. Training of regular education teachers regarding the needs of bilingual exceptional children.

American Indian Training Programs

In many instances, efforts to develop Indian bilingual special education training programs have encountered similar difficulties. Moreover, many Indian communities experience the additional problem of high teacher turnover and a severe shortage of local Indian teachers. Traditional training programs on university campuses have not been a solution, for two major reasons:

1. University-based programs are not designed to meet the needs of the reservation.

2. When Indian students attend a university in an urban area, there is a tendency for them to accept better-paying positions in that setting rather than returning to the reservation.

During the past few years, we have worked with the three American Indian bilingual special education training programs. Two of the programs are on the Navajo reservation and one is on the Rosebud Sioux reservation. All three of the programs have a field-based training design. In each instance, the initiative for the program has not come from the university level, but rather from an agency of the Indian community.

Navajo Teacher Training Program

The Navajo Special Education Development Program (NSEDP) is sponsored by the Division of Education of the Navajo Tribe and Northern Arizona University (NAU). This program leads to a Master's degree in special education. Four different areas of study are available, for example, learning disabilities, reading and learning disabilities, mentally handicapped, and emotionally handicapped. The program consists of courses offered at sites on the Navajo Nation and at the NAU campus.

The following data on the Navajo project are taken from a paper by Pearson and Schnorr (1983). A total of 54 Navajo educators were recruited over the first three-year period to participate in the special education teacher development program. Of these students, 91% were women. Most of the students were recruited from regular education training (68%) and employment (65%). Less than one-fifth (18%) of the students were employed in special education at the time they began their studies. Of the 20 students enrolled in the program for a full 2 years, ten completed their degrees. In addition, the program provided between 18 and 36 hours of instruction to 15 other trainees. Some of these students had only one course and/or on-campus practicum to complete in order to obtain their Master's degrees.

In 1983, a sample of students and faculty were interviewed to obtain information about the experiences of the students in the program. Personal comments reflected concerns about child care, lack of school district cooperation with the training needs of the students, and a lack of adequate funding and support. Some students had experienced difficulty with the long drives in bad weather and the consequent wear on their cars. The practicum experience required in the program caused problems for several of the students. These students encountered difficulty with school administrators in getting access to working with children as part of their practicum experience. Many were obliged to get additional parent permission to test, a process which took considerable time due to the widely scattered households and lack of telephone service. Program concerns centered around inadequate support services, such as the lack of library and research materials at the off-campus site. Students also experienced considerable delays in obtaining materials through the NAU inter-library loan system. There were discrepancies between the duration of the tribal scholarships and the length of the summer term, which caused some financial hardships, as did the delays (three days to three weeks) on the part of the university finance office in distributing tribal scholarship checks to the students.

In terms of bilingual special education, students felt that regular education teachers needed to be trained in dealing with and coordinating special education student programs. There was a perceived need for a standard translation of special education terms into the Navajo language. A real need for culturally appropriate test stimuli relevant to the children's environment, for example, the Peabody pictures, was also identified. Students expressed concern about the diverse levels of special education experience and training among students participating in the classes. Inexperienced students, often felt inferior to the experienced students, and course instruction often had to be balanced in terms of all types of students.

As a result of these student and faculty interviews, several changes were made to the program. Perhaps the most important was the development of a bilingual component. Three bilingual special education modules focusing on the interaction between the child's language and culture and handicapping conditions were incorporated into existing courses. These modules will be field tested and revised as necessary.

Summary

Field-based, locally controlled bilingual special education teacher training programs provide unique opportunities for providing more adequate and appropriate services to CLDE children. With the respect to Indian communities, Indian educators are trained to work directly with the population of students to be served, and cultural and linguistic information can be adapted to directly address the needs of these students. In addition, field-based programs serve as a vehicle through which the Indian community can make Indian teacher preparation programs more relevant. Other Indian tribes faced with similar teacher shortages may want to explore this training model in developing their own programs.

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AMERICAN INDIAN PERSONNEL PREPARATION IN SPECIAL EDUCATION*

Anna Gajar

The needs of American Indian special education personnel are unique, as are the needs of American Indian handicapped children. Prior to the passage of P.L. 94-142, funds and services for American Indian handicapped children and youth were minimal and to a large extent unknown. American Indian children attend federal, tribal, and public schools; as a result, responsibility for the education of handicapped children was and continues to be an issue in some localities. This situation has made it difficult to determine the exact number of American Indian handicapped children receiving a free, appropriate public education, as well as those children in need of services. Likewise, it is hard to know the exact number of needed special education personnel across the various types of school systems.

Personnel Needs

The available literature (Johnson et al., 1980) indicates there are disparities between the number of American Indian special educators currently employed and the need for additional qualified personnel. In 1979, Ramirez and Tippeconnic pointed out that there were approximately 5,000 handicapped American Indian students receiving services through the Bureau of Indian Affairs (BIA), and that few of these students were being taught by American Indian special educators. It was also noted that, in addition to the BIA, there was increasing evidence that public and tribal or Indian community controlled schools had similar personnel needs. More recently, the Dine Center for Human Development (1983) conducted a needs assessment on the Navajo Reservation and found that less than one fifth of the special education teachers were of Navajo descent. This is consistent with other information indicating that only about 16% of all professionals employed in the service of handicapped Navajo children were Navajo. The 1983 survey also reported that a large number of special education teacher positions were unfilled. The BIA comprehension system of personnel development (a part of the state plan required under P.L. 94-142) sums up the difficulties associated with ensuring an adequate supply of qualified special educators as follows: "It should be emphasized that there are many training needs due to the variety of services needed, program complexities, school enrollments, school type, personnel turnover, and so forth. Each school is unique and services needed must be provided over a wide geographic area."

In summary, the need for qualified American Indian special education personnel is a pressing problem, even though the exact number of needed personnel is difficult to determine. Based on the established need for American Indian special education personnel, a number of training programs have been funded by the United States Department of Education, Office of Special Education Programs. These programs provide training opportunities for American Indians in special education as well as related areas.

*For a complete copy of this paper see Gajar, A., Journal of American Indian Education, May 1985, pp. 7-15.

Training Programs

Native American Special Education Teacher Training Program

The special education teacher training program at The Pennsylvania State University prepares American Indian general special educators at the Master's level, provides program participants with combined training in special education and Indian Education, and identifies for incorporation into the curriculum successful and relevant strategies for preparing American Indian special education teachers and leaders.

Within the special education curriculum, emphasis is placed on a behavioral approach to serving a wide range of handicapping conditions. Certification is generic; students are certified to teach in the area of the mildly and physically handicapped, ages 3 to 21. The curriculum is based to a large extent on the existing curricula of the special education department and courses available through the American Indian Leadership Training Program. Students are expected to develop competencies in the following areas: diagnosis; characteristics of handicapped children; specification of instructional behavioral objectives; task analysis; selection, modification, and use of instructional materials; selection and use of instructional strategies; evaluation of student progress; utilization of resources; behavior management; individual life instruction; parent involvement; professional activities; and knowledge of contemporary trends in teaching and related areas.

The curriculum features seminars on the unique aspects of educating American Indian handicapped children. Pertinent literature concerning American Indian handicapped students is reviewed and discussed, as is the history of American Indian education. Students have access to the Indian communities of the Iroquois nation in Western New York and Canada as well as governmental and congressional offices involved in Indian education and special education in Washington, D.C.

Progression through the program can be described in several stages. In Stage A, the student demonstrates knowledge and competency in the basic concept of exceptionality in American Indian education, including reading and evaluating research dealing with American Indian handicapped children and knowledge of current issues and practices. Work in this area would include such things as problems in research with handicapped populations, a seminar on the issues of special education, human rights for the handicapped, and courses in learning disabilities, emotional disturbance, and mental retardation. In Stage B, students demonstrate the knowledge of curriculum materials and methods of teaching exceptional children. Students also demonstrate teaching strategies for typical children. Course work here would include areas such as instruction for the mildly handicapped and instruction for the severely handicapped. In Stage C, students participate in activities intended to promote individual knowledge of the present status of American Indian education, the history of American Indian education, and related topics. In Stage D, students demonstrate their specialized knowledge relative to specific exceptionalities. Stage E involves an initial practicum where the student teaches in a one-to-one situation. Stage F encompasses the student teaching experience. Finally, in Stages G and H, the students write a paper and take a comprehensive examination.

Other Programs Preparing Personnel to Serve American Indian Handicapped Children

The following are some of the projects funded by the U.S. Department of Education, Office of Special Education Programs, to provide training for personnel serving American Indian handicapped children:

1. Papago Special Education Personnel Preparation Program (Indian Oasis School District, Sells, Arizona). In association with the University of Arizona, training is provided to all non-Papago professional staff members to be more sensitive to the cultural backgrounds of their students. Training is also provided to paraprofessional staff members, all of whom are Papago, to become more effective special education personnel and to advance academically towards a degree.

2. The Navajo Special Education Clinical Teacher Development Program (Navajo Tribe, Division of Education, Window Rock, Arizona). In cooperation with Northern Arizona University, this program prepares Navajo individuals for special education teacher certification at a Master's degree level in the following areas: learning disabilities, reading and learning disabilities, mental retardation, and emotional disturbance.

3. American Indian Professional Training in Speech-Language Pathology and Audiology (University of Arizona). This preservice training program trains students at the undergraduate and graduate levels in speech pathology and audiology. The curriculum has been adapted to focus on bilingual/bicultural issues and includes supplementary tutoring and practicum supervision.

4. Program for Paraprofessional Training in Special Education and Related Services (Dull Knife Memorial College, Lame Deer, Montana). This project will develop a certification program for teacher aides and design and implement an Associate of Arts degree for paraprofessional training in special education and related services on the Northern Cheyenne Indian reservation.

5. Inservice Training for Native American Paraprofessionals in Communications Disorders (Southwest Communications Resources, Inc., Albuquerque, New Mexico). This project trains paraprofessional personnel from the Navajo Child Development Program, located on the Navajo reservation in New Mexico, to identify Native American preschool children enrolled in that program with possible speech-language problems and to assist in the provision of needed intervention.

6. Bilingual/Bicultural Special Education Training for Teachers and Educational Diagnosticians (University of New Mexico). This graduate level training program prepares trainees to meet the unique needs of handicapped children who are non-English speaking, have limited English language proficiency, or who are bilingual. Target languages include Spanish, Keres, Tewa, and Navajo.

7. Minnesota Regional Inservice/Preservice Training Program in Early Childhood/Special Education, Transition to Work, Limited English Proficiency, and Indian Social Work Aides (State Department of Education). Inservice/preservice training for Indian Social Work Aides consists of training to clarify their roles, responsibilities and duties in linking American Indian parents and their handicapped children with appropriate special education services.

Student Retention

In conclusion, I would like to share with you the results of a survey conducted by Falk and Aitken (1984) which I found to be very pertinent. Factors found to promote the retention of American Indian college students included:

1. Active support of family members. This was extremely important for retaining students throughout the program.

2. Developmental academic preparation. We have found that previous contact with handicapped students or knowledge in special education was an advantage to students entering our program and was also a factor in deciding to enter the special education area.

3. Institutional commitment. Overt institutional commitment and support to the area was very important.

4. Financial aid. More complete financial assistance was extremely important. Many of our students are heads of families with three or four dependents, and it is very difficult to leave one's family to pursue a degree.

5. Personal motivation. We have found that if the other four variables were taken care of, student motivation was terrific.

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GROUP DISCUSSION ON PERSONNEL PREPARATION

Of greatest concern was the high rate of attrition in most teacher training programs. Factors related to the high rate of American Indian student attrition included limited financial resources, difficulties in adjusting to "city life," and family obligations. Generally, students must relocate to larger towns and cities in order to complete their training, resulting in cultural conflicts and adjustment problems. Moreover, due to financial constraints, students frequently have to leave their families at home on the reservation. As a consequence, students experience emotional stress, and it is not uncommon for them to withdraw altogether from the training program.

It was generally agreed that personality factors are important in student selection. For example, a warm and sensitive person truly committed to teaching children would be a better candidate, even though that person may have several dependents. It was also suggested that students have strong family ties to their community in order to increase the likelihood that they will return to the reservation.

Peer support was suggested as a means of helping American Indian students deal with cultural differences. With peer support, the students would not feel isolated and would be able to encourage and support one another in their studies and other work. Students, for example, might complete those courses requiring on-campus enrollment together rather than individually.

The characteristics of the director of the program and other professors were also deemed to be a critical element in whether or not students successfully completed their program. Instructors need to recognize that American Indian students may experience adjustment problems and must be sensitive to their needs.

Ideally, instructors should be knowledgeable about different Indian cultures and subcultures, and be comfortable with cultural differences. At the same time, instructors need to recognize that the native and Anglo value structures are both important to the student. The American Indian student should not be asked to relinquish one or the other.

FEDERAL POLICY AND THE EDUCATION OF AMERICAN INDIAN EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN AND YOUTH: CURRENT STATUS AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

Bruce A. Ramirez

The passage of The Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975, P.L. 94-142, signalled the beginning of a period of extensive activity at the federal, state, and local levels in terms of providing appropriate educational opportunities for all handicapped children and youth. As the nation turned its attention to the implementation of P.L. 94-142, advocates and others also began to give specific attention to the availability and appropriateness of special education programs and services for American Indian and Alaskan Native* handicapped children attending federal, public, and tribally controlled school systems. More recently, appropriate educational opportunities for American Indian gifted and talented students have increasingly become an area of concern and interest.

This paper describes in summary fashion the progress that has occurred in the education of Indian handicapped and gifted and talented children since 1975. In reviewing the gains that have been made over the past eight years I have relied, for the most part, on data collected by various federal agencies, annual reports submitted to the United States Congress, as well as other related public documents. Certainly, further research and study is needed to elaborate on and clarify many of the findings related to service delivery. In this regard, it is hoped that this paper will serve as a basis for further discussion and inquiry, and, ultimately, improved public policy.

Number of Indian Exceptional Students Served

The following sections contain information on the number of Indian handicapped and gifted and talented children receiving specialized services as reported by the Bureau of Indian Affairs (BIA), U.S. Department of Education's Office of Civil Rights, and Head Start Bureau. Unfortunately, reporting requirements are not consistent across federal programs; thus, the data provide only a partial view of the number of Indian exceptional children and youth served, educational environments where Indian handicapped children receive their education, and available special education personnel.

*Throughout the remainder of this paper, the term "Indian" refers to both American Indian and Alaskan Native children and youth.

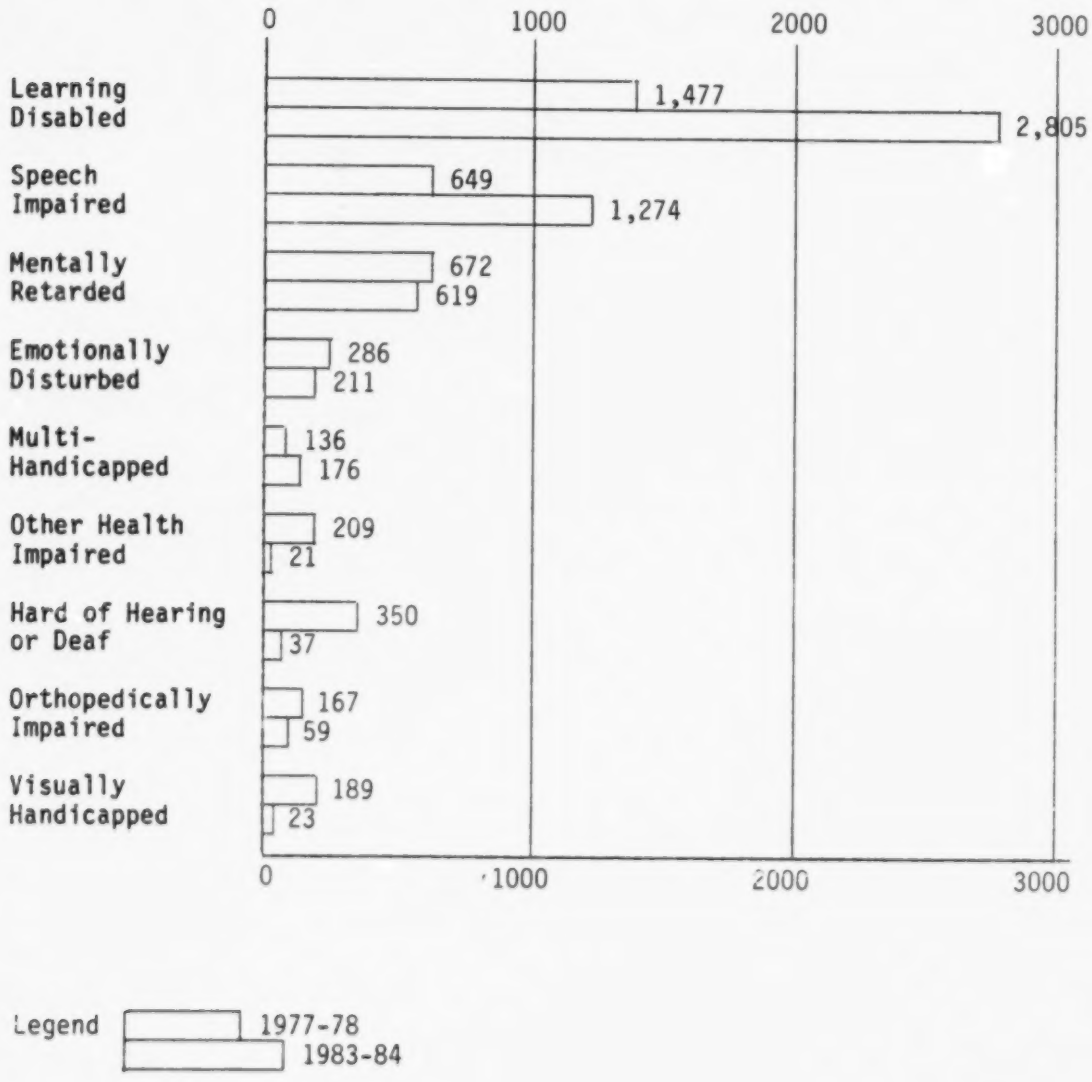
Number of Handicapped Children Served

Handicapped Children Served by the Bureau of Indian Affairs. During the 1983-84 school year, the states reported a total of 4,094,108 handicapped children ages 3-21 served under Part B of the Education of the Handicapped Act, as amended by P.L. 94-142. Since the child count is not collected or reported according to race or ethnicity, the precise number of Indian handicapped children and youth served by the states under this program is not known. There is, however, information about the number of Indian* handicapped children and youth served by the Bureau of Indian Affairs (BIA) because the Secretary of the Interior is eligible to receive funds under the Act. At the present time it is estimated that the Department of the Interior/BIA has educational responsibility for approximately 20% of the Indian school-age population.

In school year 1977-78, BIA reported that 3,998 handicapped students ages 3-21 were receiving special education and related services (Table 1 - Appendix). Six years later (i.e., school year 1983-84), the number of handicapped children and youth receiving special education and related services in accordance with the requirements of P.L. 94-142 had increased by 31%. While the total number of handicapped children and youth served by BIA increased by 1,227 between 1977-78 and 1983-84, this growth did not occur uniformly for all categories of handicapping conditions. As can be seen in Figure 1, children identified as learning disabled and speech and language impaired accounted for almost all of this increase. The only other population to experience an increase during this same period was the multi-handicapped. On the other hand, the number of children classified as hard of hearing or deaf, other health impaired, and visually handicapped decreased by more than 80%. Likewise, the number of orthopedically impaired children declined markedly. (After significant declines in 1978-79, the number of children classified as hard of hearing or deaf, orthopedically impaired, visually impaired, and other health impaired has remained somewhat stable for the last five years.) Smaller decreases were also reported for the mentally retarded and seriously emotionally disturbed populations.

*A member of an Indian tribe (including band, nation, rancheria, pueblo, colony, community or Alaskan Native village or corporation) recognized as eligible for special programs and services provided by the federal government because of their status as Indians.

Figure 1. Distribution of Children Ages 3-21 Served by the Bureau of Indian Affairs, School Year 1977-78 and 1983-84.



The significant increase in the number of learning disabled students and decline in the number of mentally retarded children is consistent with national trends for both of these populations. In contrast to the decline nationally, the number of speech and language impaired children served by BIA has steadily increased since 1980-81. With respect to emotionally disturbed children, the states as a whole continue to report steady increases, whereas BIA has reported decreases for the last three years.

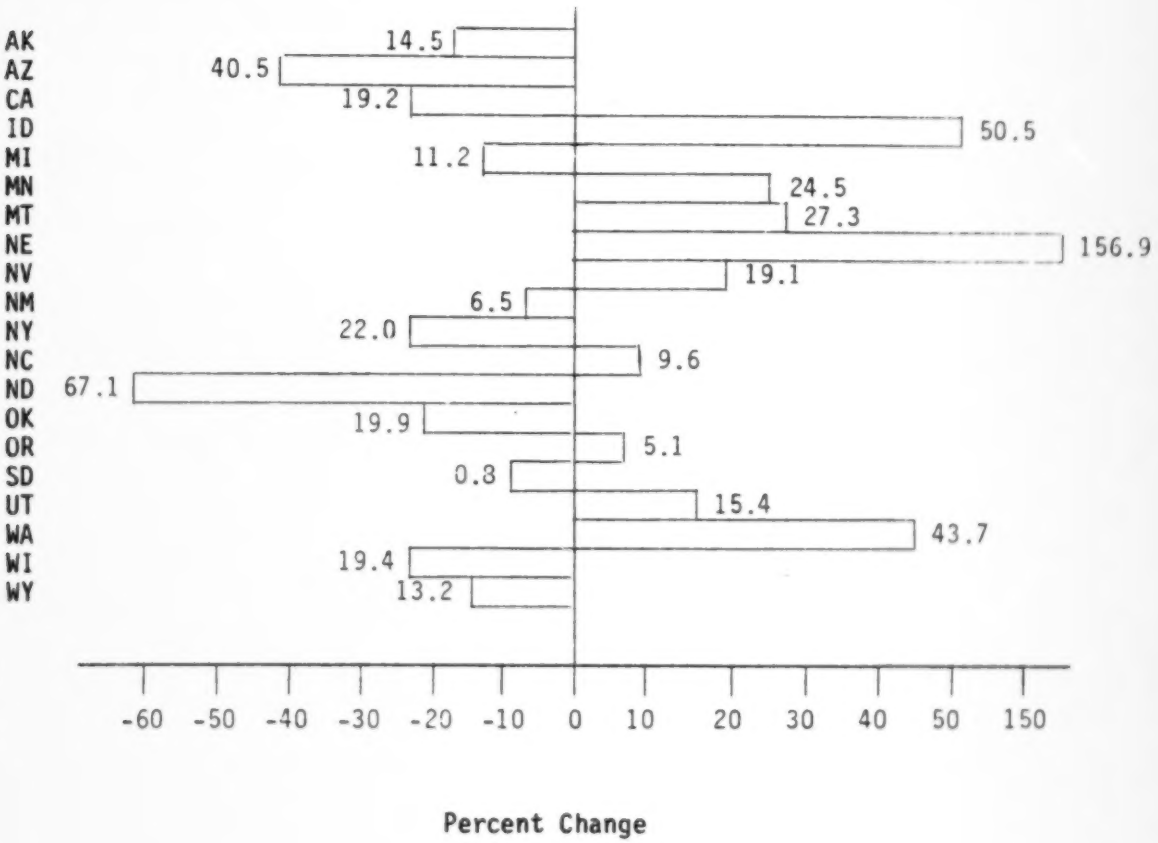
For the country as a whole, the number of handicapped children ages 3-5 receiving special education and related services increased by 23.3%, and the number of handicapped youth ages 18-21 increased by 70% since 1976-77 (The Council for Exceptional Children, 1984). In 1983-84, students in these two age groups represented 10.6% of the total number of handicapped pupils served by the BIA. As can be seen in Table 2 (Appendix) the number of handicapped children and youth served by BIA in these two age groups decreased slightly after several years of successive growth. Even with these recent decreases, however, the number of children ages 3-5 and youth ages 18-21 served between 1977-78 and 1983-84 increased by 50.0% and 25.6%, respectively.

Handicapped Children Served by Public Schools. The Office of Civil Rights' (OCR) national biennial survey of elementary and secondary school districts (conducted primarily to assess local educational agency compliance with various civil rights statutes) provides the most recent information on the number of Indian handicapped children served by public schools throughout the nation. Based upon reported information, which includes data on race or ethnicity as well as enrollment in selected special education programs (i.e., mentally retarded, speech impaired, seriously emotionally disturbed, and learning disabled), OCR projects data to state and national levels. The OCR survey, however, does not collect and report information on the number of other health impaired, hard of hearing or deaf, orthopedically impaired, visually handicapped, deaf-blind, and multi-handicapped children according to race or ethnicity. As a result, the survey provides only a partial estimate of the total number of Indian handicapped children and youth enrolled in public school special education programs.

In 1978 there were 329,430 Indian* students enrolled in public elementary and secondary schools. In 1980, OCR projected the total Indian enrollment in public elementary and secondary schools to be 305,730, a decline of 23,700 students or 7.2% from 1978 (Table 3 - Appendix). Of the 20 states enrolling, nearly 90% of all Indian public elementary and secondary school students, 11 states reported decreases between 1978 and 1980, while 9 states reported increased enrollment (Figure 2).

*A person having origins in any of the original peoples of North America and who maintains cultural identification through tribal affiliation or community recognition.

Figure 2. Percentage Change in Indian Elementary and Secondary Public School Enrollment in Selected States: 1978 to 1980.



Unlike the overall Indian enrollment, the projected number of Indian students in special education programs for the learning disabled, speech impaired, mentally retarded, and emotionally disturbed increased by 469 students or 1.9% between 1978 and 1980. With the exception of Oregon, states with increased Indian elementary and secondary school enrollment also had increased special education enrollment (Figure 3). In Montana, Nevada, North Carolina, and Washington, the percentage increase for special education exceeded the percentage increase for elementary and secondary education, whereas in Idaho, Minnesota, Nebraska, and Utah the reverse occurred.

Figure 3. American Indian Elementary and Secondary Public School Enrollment in Relation to Special Education Enrollment: 1978 to 1980.

	Increase in Special Education Enrollment	Decrease in Special Education Enrollment
Increase in Elementary/Secondary Enrollment	Idaho Minnesota Montana Nebraska Nevada North Carolina Utah Washington	Oregon
Decrease in Elementary/Secondary Enrollment	Michigan New Mexico New York Wyoming	Alaska Arizona California North Dakota Oklahoma South Dakota Wisconsin

On the other hand, there was greater special education variation among the 11 states with declines in elementary and secondary school enrollment. Four of these states (i.e., Michigan, New Mexico, New York, and Wyoming) had increased special education enrollment. Of the seven states with declines in both elementary and secondary school and special education enrollments, the percentage decrease for special education was much smaller than the percentage decrease reported for the overall public school enrollment in five states. Alaska was the one state where the percentage decline in special education enrollment far exceeded the decline in elementary and secondary school enrollment. In South Dakota, the percentage decline for elementary and secondary school enrollment and for special education enrollment were almost identical.

Table 4 (Appendix) contains the distribution of Indian students enrolled in public school special education programs for 1978 and 1980. Of the Indian handicapped students enrolled in the four types of special education programs in 1980, 48.4% were learning disabled. This represents an increase of 2.5% since 1978. Over this same period, the percentage of educable mentally retarded students decreased by 2.9%.

In comparison with the percentage of handicapped children served by BIA, there were marked differences in the percentages of learning disabled and mentally retarded children served. The proportion of learning disabled

children served by BIA in 1980-81 was 10.0% greater than the proportion served by the public schools, whereas the proportion of mentally retarded students served by BIA was 8.0% lower. For speech impaired students, the proportion served in public schools was 2.0% higher. There was no difference in the proportion of emotionally disturbed children served by BIA and the public schools in 1980.

Handicapped Children Served by Head Start. According to the Administration for Children, Youth, and Families (1984), 4% of the 442,140 children participating in Head Start programs in 1983-84 were American Indian. This includes Indian children served through local public agencies, private nonprofit organizations, and school systems, as well as the governing bodies of an Indian tribe or Alaskan Native village.

The vast majority of the Indian children participating in Head Start programs reside on Indian reservations or in Alaskan Native villages and are served through the Indian Head Start Program, which is a distinct unit within the Head Start administrative structure. In 1983-84 the total enrollment in the Indian Head Start Program component was 15,855 (Table 5 - Appendix). During this period, 94 Indian Head Start grantees served 1,818 handicapped children. Since 1979-80, the total number of Indian children served by Indian grantees has steadily increased, as has the number of handicapped children, even though the number of grantees increased only slightly. Over this five-year period, the number of children enrolled in Indian Head Start programs increased by 40%, whereas the number of handicapped children grew by 85%. The growth over the past decade, however, is even more impressive. In 1974-75, 52 Indian grantees reported serving 4,395 children, of which 311 were professionally diagnosed as handicapped.

The distribution of handicapped children in Indian Head Start programs appears in Table 6 (Appendix). Between 1974-75 and 1983-84, the proportion of children diagnosed as speech impaired and health impaired increased by 17.62% and 0.12%, respectively. The proportion of children diagnosed as blind, visually impaired, deaf, hearing impaired, physically handicapped, mentally retarded, and emotionally disturbed decreased during this same period.

Number of Gifted and Talented Children Served

Gifted and Talented Children Served by The Bureau of Indian Affairs. At this time, there are no data indicating BIA is serving any students in programs for the gifted and talented.

Gifted and Talented Children Served by Public Schools. In 1978, OCR reported that 2,541 Indian students were enrolled in public school programs for the gifted and talented. In 1980, an additional 845 students were projected to be enrolled in gifted and talented programs, a growth of 33% over two years (Table 3 - Appendix).

Even though the number of Indian students in these programs increased overall, there were marked differences among many of the states (Figure 4). Other than North Carolina, states with increased Indian elementary and secondary school enrollment also had increased Indian student enrollment in programs for the gifted and talented. For the most part, the percentage increase for gifted and talented enrollment exceeded the percentage increase for elementary and secondary education in all of these states. However, in some states (e.g., Nebraska and Nevada), increases of less than 10 students resulted in percentage increases of more than 30%, while in others (e.g., Idaho and Oregon), gains of less than 50 students resulted in percentage increases of more than 200%.

Of the 11 states with decreased Indian elementary and secondary school enrollment, only Arizona, New Mexico, and North Dakota reported decreased enrollment in gifted and talented programs. Except for New York, the increased gifted and talented enrollment in the other eight states was less than 90 students.

Figure 4. American Indian Elementary and Secondary Public School Enrollment in Relation to Gifted and Talented Enrollment: 1978-1980.

	Increase in Gifted/Talented Enrollment	Decrease in Gifted/Talented Enrollment
Increase in Elementary/Secondary Enrollment	Idaho Minnesota Montana Nebraska Nevada Oregon Utah Washington	North Carolina
Decrease in Elementary/Secondary Enrollment	Alaska California Michigan New York Oklahoma South Dakota Wisconsin Wyoming	Arizona New Mexico North Dakota

Educational Settings

Nationally, 60% of all handicapped children received most of their education in regular classes during the 1981-82 school year. Twenty-five percent received services in separate classes within a regular education building, 6% were educated in separate schools, and 1% were served in other environments (i.e., homebound, hospitals, etc.) (Department of Education, 1984). In contrast, BIA educated 76% of its handicapped students in regular classes, 18% received services in separate classes, and 6% received services in separate schools (Table 7 - Appendix).

Educational Settings Within BIA. Overall, since 1977-78, the percentage of handicapped students being educated by BIA in regular classes has decreased and the percentage of students being served in separate classes has increased. The proportion of students in separate schools has remained stable over this same period. Other noteworthy changes involving individual categories of handicapped children served by BIA between 1977-78 and 1981-82 include:

- An increase in the proportion of learning disabled children served in separate classes and a decrease in the proportion served in regular classes.
- An increase in the percentage of mentally retarded students being educated in separate classes and a decrease in the percentage being served in regular classes.
- A decrease in the percentage of seriously emotionally disturbed students educated in regular classes and an increase in the percentage being served in separate classes and separate facilities.
- An increase in the percentage of speech impaired students educated in regular classes and a decrease in the percentage served in separate classes.

Personnel

As the population of handicapped students has grown, so too has the number of personnel responsible for serving handicapped children and youth. Nationally, from school year 1976-77 to 1981-82, the number of special education teachers has increased by 31%, while the number of other related school personnel increased by 49%.

BIA Special Education Personnel. Consistent with national trends, there has been a dramatic increase in special education and other related school personnel within the federal school system for Indians (Table 8 -Appendix). BIA special education personnel increased from 132 to 286 between 1976-77 and 1981-82, an increase of 119%. Similarly, other related school personnel (i.e., teacher aides, supervisors, diagnostic staff, etc.) within BIA increased by 92% during this same period (Table 8 - Appendix).

Federal Special Education and Indian Education Policy

The previous information indicates that the number of Indian exceptional children receiving special education has continued to increase, in part, because of the impact of P.L. 94-142 as well as other federal laws and regulations that have mandated or authorized programs, services, and activities benefiting Indian exceptional children and youth. The following section summarizes selected policy at the federal level that has contributed to these opportunities.

Education of the Handicapped Act

The Education of the Handicapped Act (EHA) has been the primary legislative vehicle through which the federal government has assisted state and local educational agencies in educating handicapped children, as well as in improving the quality of special education provided handicapped children and youth.

State Grant Program (Part B as amended by P.L. 94-142). In addition to states P.L. 94-142 [i.e., Section 611(f)] authorizes the Secretary of Education to make payments to the Secretary of the Interior according to the need for such assistance for the education of handicapped children on reservations served by elementary and secondary schools operated for Indian children by BIA. The amount of funds available to the Department of the Interior may not exceed 1% of the amount available to the states in any given fiscal year. As the overall appropriation for the state grant program has increased, the amount awarded to the Secretary of the Interior also has increased, irrespective of the number of children served (see Table 9 - Appendix).

In order to receive these funds, the Secretary of the Interior has been required to submit a state plan (for approval by the Secretary of Education) specifying the policies and procedures that the Department will follow in educating handicapped children throughout its school system. In addition to putting forth policies and procedures on child identification, nondiscriminatory evaluation, individualized education programs (IEPs), placement in the least restrictive environment (LRE), and procedural safeguards (i.e., notice, parental consent, impartial hearings), BIA is required to have a comprehensive system of personnel development as well as a Bureau-wide advisory panel.

Discretionary Grant Programs. Other parts of EHA authorize funding to support projects and activities in early childhood education (i.e., demonstration and outreach projects, and state planning and development grants), postsecondary education, secondary education and transitional services, personnel preparation, research, as well as regional resource centers. While these authorities do not make specific reference to Indian handicapped children and youth, the Office of Special Education Programs has, over the years, funded projects centering on Indian handicapped children in the following program areas: early childhood education demonstration and outreach projects, personnel preparation, and research.

While the Department of the Interior has not received funds under any of the EHA discretionary authorities, BIA receives technical assistance and training, as do the SEAs, through the regional resource center network.

Education Amendments of 1978

Title XI of P.L. 95-561, the Education Amendments of 1978, sought to improve education opportunities for Indian students served by BIA as well as improve the administration of the Bureau elementary and secondary education program. Among other things, P.L. 95-561 required the Secretary of the Interior to establish, in regulation, a formula for the distribution of funds to BIA-operated and contract schools. In developing the formula [i.e., the Indian School Equalization Program (ISEP)], a weighted factor was included for the education of handicapped children and youth.

This past year the Indian Education Amendments of 1984, P.L. 98-511, amended Title XI of the 1978 Indian Education Amendments to clarify further the administrative and educational responsibilities of BIA. An important improvement in the statute authorizing the allotment formula was the addition of a number of special cost factors to be considered by the Secretary of Interior in any revision of the ISEP formula. Among the new cost factors is a factor for "special programs for gifted and talented students."

Head Start Act

Section 640(d) of the Head Start Act (Section 635 et seq. of the Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act of 1981, P.L. 97-35) requires the Secretary of the Department of Health and Human Services to establish policies and procedures to assure that not "less than 10% of the total number of enrollment opportunities in Head Start programs in each state shall be available for handicapped children...and that services shall be provided to meet their special needs." The enabling legislation utilizes the Education of the Handicapped Act definition of handicapped children. Handicapped children must also meet the age (i.e., between three years and the age of compulsory school attendance) and family income (i.e., at least 90% of the children must be from low-income families, including families receiving public assistance) eligibility requirements for Head Start programs.

The statute [Section 636(b)] further requires the Secretary to: (1) continue the administrative arrangement responsible for meeting the needs of Indian and migrant children nationally; and (2) assure that appropriate funding is provided to meet such needs. Funding for Indian and migrant programs is provided through a 13% set-aside of the total appropriation for Head Start. While this set-aside is to be used for several purposes (i.e., payments to the insular areas, training and technical assistance activities, and other discretionary activities), Indian and migrant programs and services for handicapped children are afforded a first-priority status [Section 640(a)(2)].

Indian Education Act

Part B of the Indian Education Act, P.L. 92-318, authorizes special programs and projects to improve educational opportunities for Indian children. Authorized activities include demonstration projects, educational enrichment programs and services, training of education personnel, as well as dissemination and evaluation activities. In a number of instances, the implementing regulations include the education of handicapped and gifted and talented students as an allowable activity. For example:

- Among the authorized projects under the Local Educational Agency Demonstration Projects Program are projects to "provide special educational services for handicapped and gifted and talented Indian children."

- The Educational Personnel Development Program may fund projects to prepare persons for positions as "special educators of handicapped or gifted and talented students."

Vocational Rehabilitation Act

While not traditionally viewed as a part of elementary and secondary education, the federal Vocational Rehabilitation Act recognizes the unique needs of Indian disabled persons within the basic vocational rehabilitation state grant program as well as the research and training center program.

Vocational Rehabilitation Services. As a result of legislative, administrative, geographic, and communication problems related to the provision of vocational rehabilitation services to Indian handicapped individuals residing on Indian reservations, the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 was amended in 1978 to authorize grants awarded directly to Indian tribes on federal and state reservations to pay 90% of the cost of vocational rehabilitation services for handicapped American Indians. Grantees must ensure that the rehabilitation services provided are comparable to such services provided to other handicapped individuals residing in the state and that the application was developed in consultation with the rehabilitation office of the state(s) involved. Appropriations for American Indian Vocational Rehabilitation Services Projects have increased slightly over the last few years: FY 1982: $624,000; FY 1983: $650,000; and FY 1984: $700,000.

Research and Training Centers. Title II of the Rehabilitation Act authorizes research, demonstration projects, and related activities for the rehabilitation of individuals who are handicapped. A major component of this multifaceted program is the research and training centers, which are operated in collaboration with institutions of higher education to provide coordinated and advanced programs of research in rehabilitation

and training. Following the conduct of a needs assessment, expression of congressional support through the appropriations process, and public comment on the need to establish a center solely for American Indian handicapped individuals, the National Institute of Handicapped Research (NIHR) funded two Native American Research and Training Centers in 1983.

Future Needs

While impressive gains have been made since 1978 relative to special education opportunities for Indian handicapped children and youth, there are a number of key policy areas that will require our attention in the years ahead if this progress is to continue and extend to all exceptional individuals in need of specialized services. There remains a need to: (1) extend services to Indian exceptional children who are not receiving needed specialized services; (2) maintain services to those for whom services may be threatened with cessation; and (3) improve many existing services and programs.

Services for Indian Exceptional Children Not Receiving Appropriate Educational Opportunities

Gifted and Talented Children. Indian gifted and talented children and youth need to be provided appropriate programs and services. While there has been a noticeable increase nationally in the number of Indian students participating in public school gifted and talented programs, this represents only 1.5% of the total Indian elementary and secondary public school enrollment. This is well below the U.S. Department of Education's estimated prevalence rate of 3-5%. With few exceptions, this is also the case for most states, many of whom in 1980 were serving less than 1.0% of their Indian elementary and secondary school population in programs for the gifted and talented.

It was not until the Bureau of Indian Affairs Advisory Committee for Exceptional Children (1983) and The Council for Exceptional Children (February 1984) called for the establishment of programs and services for gifted and talented children within the federal school system for Indians that this population of students was afforded serious attention. While Congress--in the Education Amendments of 1984, P.L. 98-511--directed BIA to consider adding a special cost factor for gifted and talented students to its allocation formula (i.e., ISEP), this does not guarantee that this cost factor will be incorporated into the formula in the very near future.

Preschool Handicapped Children. The number of Indian preschool handicapped children in Head Start has continued to increase. Likewise, BIA continues to serve handicapped children ages 3-5. At the same time little is known about the number of preschool handicapped children served through the public schools and other state agencies.

However, the recent efforts by the Department of Interior/BIA to change the ages at which handicapped children have a right to an education

provides a disheartening, yet instructive, illustration of the susceptibility of existing policy to change. In the course of revising its fiscal year 1984-86 state plan required under Part B of the Education of the Handicapped Act as amended by P.L. 94-142, the Department of Interior/BIA proposed changing the ages at which handicapped Indian children have a right to an education. Since 1978, handicapped children ages 3-5 were included within BIA's mandated ages of eligibility. Under the proposed policy change services for handicapped children ages 3-4 would be permissible (i.e., left to the discretion of local schools and agency education offices). The BIA Advisory Committee for Exceptional Children has opposed this age change and has urged the Department of Interior/BIA to modify the ISEP formula to provide fiscal resources to schools and agencies for handicapped children below age 5 as well as to undertake a needs assessment of needed services for handicapped children birth through 2 years of age.

Nationally, there is new federal policy [i.e., Section 623(b) of the Education of the Handicapped Act] authorizing grants awarded to states to plan, develop, and implement a comprehensive service delivery system for handicapped children ages birth through 5 years. Tribal education offices/committees, public schools serving Indian children, BIA schools, tribal schools, Head Start programs, and other providers of services at the local, state, and federal levels need to be involved in this statewide planning to ensure that the needs of Indian handicapped children and infants are considered and accounted for in the early childhood comprehensive service delivery system developed by the state. This is particularly important given the direction the Department of Interior/BIA is taking on services to preschool handicapped children and the fact that the Secretary of Interior is presently not eligible to receive a grant under this program.

Vocational Education. The regulations implementing P.L. 94-142 (Section 300.14) specify that special education includes specially designed vocational education to meet the unique needs of a handicapped student. The regulations further define vocational education as the "preparation of individuals for paid or unpaid employment, or for additional preparation for a career other than a baccalaureate or advanced degree."

Congressional testimony on the reauthorization of the federal Vocational Education Act indicated that whereas handicapped children represent 9.5% of the total school-age population, they comprise only 3.3% of the vocational education enrollments (U.S. House of Representatives, 1984). Other findings include critical shortages of vocational education programs in rural areas with disadvantaged students. While additional specific information is needed, both of these findings suggest a lack of appropriate vocational education opportunities for Indian handicapped youth in public as well as federal school settings.

Child Advocacy

We need to increase our advocacy efforts to ensure that the legal rights of Indian handicapped children and their parents are protected. This is

critically important since many Indian parents, due to cultural, language, social, and economic factors, have had little experience in school affairs and, as a result, are often unaware of their rights and, thus, do not exercise them. Moreover, there are some parents who know their rights, but for a variety of reasons are unable to exercise them. The children of such families remain as vulnerable as if protections did not exist.

In the past, advocacy groups have played an important role in establishing community programs for the more severely handicapped on the Navajo, Hopi, and Papago Indian reservations. In addition to direct services, such groups, along with tribal agencies, can play a prominent role in educating parents of Indian handicapped children about their rights and available programs and services as well as serving as a source of support and assistance to parents who choose to exercise their rights by invoking the due process procedures under P.L. 94-142 and Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act.

Indian Special Education and Related Services Personnel

The benefits associated with employing educators of the same cultural background to teach and administer educational programs for culturally diverse children has received considerable attention in the literature and in practice. Low achievement, high drop-out rates, and other difficulties experienced by Indian children in completing their education have made this a central feature of many of our efforts to improve educational opportunities for Indian children and youth. Indian self-determination and Indian preference in employment and training are examples of instances where this has been translated into policy at the federal level.

While there seems to be little disagreement about the desirability of increasing the number of Indian professionals in special education and related service fields, this is an extremely complex and long-term endeavor. To date, the Office of Special Education Programs (OSEP), U.S. Department of Education, has been the most visible federal office supporting the preparation of Indian special education and related services professionals. This is, however, an issue that will require the support and cooperation of other federal agencies as well. In addition to increased numbers of practitioners for almost every aspect of service delivery in special education, consideration must also be given to leadership personnel, such as teacher trainers, administrators, and researchers. Examples of steps that could be taken to respond to these needs include:

- Amend the Indian Fellowship Program authorized under the Indian Education Act to include authorization to make special education and related services allowable fields of endeavor.

- The "minority" priority within the Personnel Preparation Program, authorized under the Education of the Handicapped Act, should be designated a funding priority for the future in order to allow for the development and expansion of training projects.

Postsecondary Education and Adult Services

Nationally, the Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services has focused substantial attention on improving the transition from school to working life for all individuals with disabilities. In addition to employment, others have urged that transition be viewed as encompassing postsecondary education, adult services, and community living. To date, little information is available on the availability of such services and opportunities within Indian communities; however, these are areas that need to be studied and improved upon.

Concluding Remarks

In addition to the needs discussed in the previous section, there are many other areas where further information is needed. The following are but some of the areas where new knowledge or updated information is needed as we continue our efforts to consider and improve existing policy for the education of Indian exceptional children and youth:

- There is a need to understand personnel shortages and turnover in relation to the number of Indian professionals in the various fields concerned with the education of handicapped and gifted and talented students.
- Certification and/or licensure of personnel presently serving Indian handicapped children and youth is in need of further study.
- Evaluation and placement procedures and practices continue to be cited as an area of concern by providers of direct services. Moreover, we need to better understand how these procedures and practices impact on the number of learning disabled, mentally retarded, seriously emotionally disturbed and gifted and talented students being reported.
- The training and information needs of Indian parents needs to be studied and meaningful strategies devised to further their participation in special education processes.

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APPENDICES

Table 1. Number of Children, Ages 3-21 Years, Served by the Bureau of Indian Affairs under P.L. 94-142.

	School Year							
	1977-78	1978-79	1979-80	1980-81	1981-82	1982-83	1983-84	1987-88*
All Conditions	3,998	4,550	4,839	4,630	4,859	4,849	5,225	5,667
Learning Disabilities	1,477	2,472	2,281	2,393	2,561	2,531	2,805	3,338
Speech Impaired	649	609	883	869	942	1,047	1,274	1,375
Mentally Retarded	672	718	821	612	736	723	619	415
Emotionally Disturbed	286	411	286	224	263	251	211	212
Other Health Impaired	209	45	30	25	25	33	21	17
Multi-Handicapped	---	136	343	302	187	199	176	233
Hard of Hearing & Deaf	350	84	114	145	106	34	37	38
Orthopedically Impaired	167	51	39	33	25	17	59	21
Visually Handicapped	189	24	42	25	13	14	23	18
Deaf Blind	---	0	0	2	1	0	0	0

Source: U.S. Department of Education (1979, 1980, 1981, 1983, and 1984), Annual Report to Congress on the Implementation of the Education for All Handicapped Children Act and U.S. Department of Education (October 5, 1984), Report of Handicapped Children Receiving Special Education Under P.L. 94-142, School Year 1983-84.

* Added for 1990 revision. 1987-88 data for children, 6-21 years of age.
Source: U.S. Department of Education (1989), Eleventh Annual Report to Congress on The Implementation of the Education of the Handicapped Act.

Table 2. Number of Handicapped Children and Youth Served Under P.L. 94-142 by the Bureau of Indian Affairs According to Age Groupings.

Year	Ages 3-5	Ages 6-17	Ages 18-21	Total
1977-78	182	3,817*	---	3,998
1978-79	116	4,211	223	4,550
1979-80	173	4,429	237	4,839
1980-81	192	4,156	282	4,630
1981-82	296	4,261	302	4,859
1982-83	323	4,243	283	4,849
1983-84	273	4,672	280	5,225
1984-85**	238	4,851	275	5,364
1985-86**	297	4,831	260	5,388
1986-87**	274	4,836	256	5,366
1987-88**	644	5,319	348	6,311

Source: U.S. Department of Education (1979, 1980, 1981, 1983, and 1984), Annual Report to Congress on the Implementation of P.L. 94-142: The Education for All Handicapped Children Act.

* Includes handicapped children ages 6-17 and 18-21 years.

** Added for 1990 revision. Source: U.S. Department of Education (1985, 1986, 1987, 1988, and 1989), Annual Report to Congress on the Implementation of the Education of the Handicapped Act.

Table 3. Office of Civil Rights Elementary and Secondary School Survey, Projected American Indian Public School Enrollment Nationally and Selected States.*

	Elementary/ Secondary Enrollment	Percent	Special Education Enrollment**	Gifted/ Talented Enrollment
National				
1978	329,430	.8	25,125	2,541
1980	305,730	.8	25,594	3,386
1986***	355,796	1.0	36,973	7,636
Alaska				
1978	19,277	22.3	3,181	187
1980	16,475	20.6	2,068	253
1986***	24,748	25.0	3,703	459
Arizona				
1978	33,556	6.6	2,201	224
1980	19,952	4.1	1,977	84
1986***	35,755	6.0	3,467	944
California				
1978	40,420	1.0	1,904	558
1980	32,640	.8	1,751	643
1986***	35,595	1.0	2,878	988
Idaho				
1978	2,944	2.0	286	16
1980	4,432	2.1	402	54
1986***	2,759	1.0	321	13
Michigan				
1978	16,132	.8	779	28
1980	14,323	.8	802	88
1986***	13,410	1.0	888	189
Minnesota				
1978	10,089	1.3	1,152	87
1980	12,564	1.6	1,184	133
1986***	10,872	1.0	1,832	382
Montana				
1978	10,954	7.7	998	42
1980	13,943	9.8	1,403	65
1986***	9,974	6.0	1,110	97
Nebraska				
1978	2,096	1.0	255	26
1980	5,385	2.2	328	34
1986***	3,048	1.0	516	75
Nevada				
1978	2,548	2.0	193	12
1980	3,035	2.0	256	16
1986***	3,713	2.0	258	31
New Mexico				
1978	22,436	8.2	1,219	143
1980	20,969	7.8	1,237	96
1986***	25,003	9.0	2,532	71
New York				
1978	5,992	.2	180	66
1980	4,674	.2	225	271
1986***	5,679	0	312	217

North Carolina				
1978	16,568	1.4	1,254	196
1980	18,155	1.6	1,640	180
1986***	17,494	2.0	1,771	218
North Dakota				
1978	5,055	5.2	420	11
1980	1,662	1.8	222	4
1986***	6,026	5.0	897	37
Oklahoma				
1978	59,282	11.0	4,911	448
1980	47,490	9.1	4,622	450
1986***	68,192	11.0	7,179	2,100
Oregon				
1978	7,254	1.6	596	20
1980	7,621	1.7	510	62
1986***	8,174	2.0	910	143
South Dakota				
1978	8,501	6.8	660	2
1980	8,430	7.2	652	25
1986***	10,107	8.0	1,315	155
Utah				
1978	5,307	1.7	668	48
1980	6,124	1.8	672	162
1986***	4,900	1.0	544	58
Washington				
1978	16,180	2.1	1,069	102
1980	23,255	3.0	2,092	153
1986***	18,274	2.0	1,947	289
Wisconsin				
1978	8,629	1.0	684	35
1980	6,955	.9	667	95
1986***	6,523	1.0	720	125
Wyoming				
1978	1,125	1.0	154	1
1980	977	1.0	171	26
1986***	1,790	2.0	202	9

Source: U.S. Department of Education, Office for Civil Rights, Directory of Elementary and Secondary School Districts, and Schools in Selected School Districts: School Year 1978-1979 (Vol. I) and U.S. Department of Education, Office for Civil Rights (March 1982), 1980 Elementary and Secondary Schools Civil Rights Survey: National and State Summaries.

* States with a 1978 Indian elementary/secondary school enrollment of at least 1.0 percent of the total state enrollment or with a total Indian enrollment of at least 5,000 students. Together these 20 states had 89.3 percent of all Indian students enrolled in elementary and secondary public schools.

** Includes only pupils enrolled in programs for the educable and trainable mentally retarded, speech impaired, seriously emotionally disturbed and learning disabled.

*** Added for 1990 revision. Source: U.S. Department of Education, Office of Civil Rights (December, 1987). 1986 Elementary and Secondary School Civil Rights Survey: National and State Summary of Projected Data.

Table 4. Distribution of Indian Students Enrolled in Public School Special Education Programs by Handicapping Condition: 1978 and 1980.

	1978		1980		1986**	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Educable Mentally Retarded	5,674	22.6*	5,050	19.7	4,062	11.0
Trainable Mentally Retarded	--	3.0	819	3.2	877	2.4
Speech Impaired	--	24.0	5,931	23.2	9,912	26.8
Seriously Emotionally Disturbed	--	4.4	1,400	5.5	1,925	5.2
Specific Learning Disabled	11,545	46.0	12,394	48.4	20,197	54.6
TOTAL	25,125	100.0	25,594	100.0	36,973	100.0

Source: U.S. Department of Education, Office of Civil Rights, Directory of Elementary and Secondary School Districts, and Schools in Selected School Districts: School Year 1978-79 (Vol. I) and U.S. Department of Education, Office for Civil Rights (March 1982), 1980 Elementary and Secondary Schools Civil Rights Survey: National and State Summaries.

* Interpreted as 22.6 percent of all American Indian students who were in special education programs were in a program for the educable mentally retarded.

** Added for 1990 revision. Source: U.S. Department of Education, Office of Civil Rights (December, 1987). 1986 Elementary and Secondary School Civil Rights Survey: National Summaries.

Table 5. Handicapped Children in Indian Head Start Programs.

Year	Number of Grantees	Total Number of Children Enrolled	Number of Handicapped Children	Percent of Total Enrollment
1979-80	92	11,303	983	8.70
1980-81	93	12,349	1,286	10.41
1981-82	93	13,795	1,520	11.02
1982-83	93	15,138	1,605	10.60
1983-84	94	15,855	1,818	11.47
1985-86*	107	16,331	2,079	12.73

Source: Eighth, Ninth, Tenth, Eleventh, and Twelfth Annual Report(s) to Congress on the Status of Handicapped Children in Head Start Programs.

* Added for 1990 revision. Source: Fourteenth Annual Report of the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services to the Congress of the United States on Services Provided to Handicapped Children in Project Head Start (1987).

Table 6. Types of Handicapping Conditions of Children Served by Indian Head Start Programs: 1974-75 and 1983-84.

Handicapping Condition	1974-75		1983-84*	
	Number of Children Diagnosed as Handicapped	Percent Handicapped	Number of Children Diagnosed as Handicapped	Percent Handicapped
Blindness	6	1.92	4	0.22
Visual Impairment	23	7.39	41	2.26
Deafness	2	0.64	3	0.17
Hearing Impairment	30	9.64	64	3.52
Physical Handicap	35	11.25	117	6.44
Speech Impairment	151	48.55	1,203	66.17
Health Impairment	33**	10.61	195	10.73
Mental Retardation	22	7.07	80	4.40
Serious Emotional Disturbance	9	2.89	42	2.31
Specific Learning Disability	---	---	69	3.80
TOTAL	311	99.96	1,818	100.00

Source: Head Start Handicap Efforts Survey Data Tables - Full Year 1975 and Program Information Report (PIR) Head Start Handicapped Services Data Tables Full Year 1983-84.

* Preliminary survey results.

** Includes developmental impairments.

Table 7. Percent of Handicapped Children, 3-21 Year Old Served in Different Educational Environment by the Bureau of Indian Affairs, 1978-79 through 1981-82.

Handicapping Condition and Setting	1977-78	1978-79	1979-80	1980-81	1981-82	1987-88*
All Conditions						
Regular Classes	84.55	72.27	75.74	---	76.04	87.45
Separate Classes	8.99	22.02	17.81	---	18.14	9.99
Separate Schools	5.42	3.94	6.41	---	5.83	2.54
Other Environments	1.04	1.77	0.04	---	---	.02
Learning Disabled						
Regular Classes	96.22	82.20	76.85	---	83.25	90.86
Separate Classes	3.78	17.80	23.15	---	16.75	8.78
Separate Schools	---	0.00	---	---	0.00	.36
Other Environments	---	0.00	---	---	---	---
Speech Impaired						
Regular Classes	92.76	78.22	94.79	---	100.00	---
Separate Classes	7.24	21.78	5.21	---	0.00	---
Separate Schools	---	0.00	---	---	0.00	---
Other Environments	---	0.00	---	---	---	---
Mentally Retarded						
Regular Classes	54.06	61.18	54.27	---	35.73	54.45
Separate Classes	17.18	18.37	20.98	---	39.95	33.25
Separate Schools	23.97	14.21	24.76	---	24.32	12.29
Other Environments	4.79	6.24	---	---	---	---
Emotionally Disturbed						
Regular Classes	83.70	72.73	93.01	---	51.71	55.18
Separate Classes	16.30	25.82	6.99	---	28.14	24.06
Separate Schools	---	1.45	---	---	20.15	20.28
Other Environments	---	0.00	---	---	---	.47
Multihandicapped						
Regular Classes	---	0.00	50.29	---	37.97	56.65
Separate Classes	---	52.45	20.35	---	39.04	31.76
Separate Schools	---	36.27	29.36	---	22.99	11.59
Other Environments	---	11.27	---	---	---	---

Source: U.S. Department of Education (1980, 1981, 1982, 1983, and 1984), Annual Report to Congress on the Implementation of P.L. 94-142: The Education for All Handicapped Children Act.

* Added for 1990 revision. Source: U.S. Department of Education (1989), Eleventh Annual Report to Congress on The Implementation of the Education of the Handicapped Act.

Table 8. Special Education Teachers and Other Related School Personnel Employed by the Bureau of Indian Affairs to Serve Handicapped Children, 0-21 Years Old.

Personnel	1976-77	1977-78	1978-79	1979-80	1980-81	1981-82	1987-88*
Special Education Personnel							
Learning Disabled	47	95	126	115	---	134	116
Speech Impaired	6	24	41	38	---	3	35
Mentally Retarded	60	90	127	116	---	47	25
Emotionally Disturbed	10	39	62	57	---	19	12
Other Health Impaired	---	5	2	3	---	0	0
Orthopedically Impaired	3	3	4	5	---	1	0
Multi-Handicapped	---	---	---	0	---	10	5
Hard of Hearing and Deaf	4	6	9	10	---	0	0
Visually Handicapped	1	4	8	8	---	1	1
Deaf-Blind	---	---	---	0	---	0	---
Non-Categorical	---	---	---	---	---	41	---
SUBTOTAL	131*	266*	379	352*	---	287*	290*
Other Related School Personnel							
School Social Workers	11	28	37	34	---	9	8
Occupational/Recreational Therapist	---	23	33	34	---	10	3
Teacher Aides	101	213	294	268	---	169	262
Physical Education Coordinators	11	22	36	34	---	5	0
Supervisors	7	24	29	26	---	30	39
Other Non-instructional Staff	17	32	38	38	---	53	39
Psychologists/Diagnostic Staff	19	45	68	63	---	35	24
Speech Pathologists/Audiologists	11	29	43	39	---	34	0
Work-Study Coordinators/Vocational Education Teachers	2	33	49	44	---	8	5
Home-Hospital Teachers	3	5	5	2	---	---	---
SUBTOTAL	182	454*	632	582*	---	350*	400*

Source: U.S. Department of Education (1980, 1981, 1982, 1983, and 1984), Annual Report to Congress on the Implementation of P.L. 94-142: The Education for All Handicapped Children Act.

* Subtotal does not correspond to the number reported in the data tables of the annual report.

** Added for 1990 revision. Source: U.S. Department of Education (1989), Eleventh Annual Report to Congress on The Implementation of the Education of the Handicapped Act.

Table 9. Grant Awards to the U.S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Indian Affairs Under P.L. 94-142, FY 1977-1984.

Fiscal Year	Grant
1977	$ 1,951,207
1978	$ 2,493,437
1979	$ 5,582,918
1980	$ 7,916,796
1981	$ 8,658,416
1982	$ 8,658,416
1983	$ 9,217,901
1984	$10,078,218
1985*	$10,582,921
1986*	$11,239,059
1987*	$11,517,643
1988*	$16,518,518
1989*	$17,675,765

Source: U.S. Department of Education (1984), Sixth Annual Report to the Congress on the Implementation of P.L. 94-142.

* Added for 1990 revision. Source: U.S. Department of Education (1989), Eleventh Annual Report to Congress on The Implementation of the Education of the Handicaped Act.